

**AN EVALUATION OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING  
PROGRAMS IN INDONESIAN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS  
IN THE YOGYAKARTA PROVINCE**

**Yuyun Yulia**

**Bachelor (Institute of Teacher Training and Educational Sciences of Padang,  
Indonesia)**

**Magister of Education (Semarang State University, Indonesia)**

**School of Global, Urban and Social Studies  
College of Design and Social Context  
RMIT University**

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## **DECLARATION**

I declare that except where due acknowledgement has been made, the work is that of the author alone; the work has not been submitted previously, in whole or in part, to qualify for another academic award; the content of this thesis is the result of work which has been carried out since the official commencement date of the approved research program and ethics procedures and guidelines have been followed.

Yuyun Yulia

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## DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my loved ones:

### My parents

late father (*Bapak M. Busiri*) and mother (*Ibu Nisam*),

### My late brother

*Rifa Jauhid*

### My husband

*Yudi*

### My teenage children

*Nabila*  
*Logan*

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

<i>Bimbel (Bimbingan Belajar)</i>	Tutoring
BOE ( <i>Dewan Pendidikan</i> )	Board of Education
BOS ( <i>Bantuan Operasional Sekolah</i> )	School Operational Fund
BSNP ( <i>Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan</i> )	National Education Standard Agency
DDJSE	Directorate of Development for Junior Secondary Education
DEO	District Education Office
DGMPSE	Directorate General for Management of Primary and Secondary Education
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EIL	English as an International Language
JETA	Jogja English Teachers' Association
KBK ( <i>Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi</i> )	Competency-based Curriculum
KKG ( <i>Kelompok Kerja Guru</i> )	Panel of Primary School Subject Teachers
KNP ( <i>Komisi Nasional Pendidikan</i> )	Commission of National Education
KTSP ( <i>Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan</i> )	School-based Curriculum
LCC	Local Content Curriculum
LKS ( <i>Lembar Kegiatan Siswa</i> )	Student Workbook
LPMP ( <i>Lembaga Penjamin Mutu Pendidikan</i> )	Educational Quality Assurance
MA ( <i>Madrasah Aliyah</i> )	Islamic Senior High School
MGMP ( <i>Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran</i> )	Panel of Secondary School Subject Teachers
MGMPs ( <i>Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran Sekolah</i> )	School Panel of Subject Teachers
MI ( <i>Madrasah Ibtidaiyah</i> )	Islamic Elementary School
MKKS ( <i>Musyawarah Kerja Kepala Sekolah</i> )	Principals' Forum
MOHA	Ministry of Home Affairs
MONE	Ministry of National Education
MORA	Ministry of Religious Affairs
MTs ( <i>Madrasah Tsanawiyah</i> )	Islamic Junior High School
NGO	Non-Government Organization
PAUD ( <i>Pendidikan Anak Usia Dini</i> )	Early Childhood
PDHI ( <i>Persaudaraan Djemaah Haji Indonesia</i> )	Islamic Foundation
PEO	Provincial Education Office
PGRI ( <i>Persatuan Guru Republik Indonesia</i> )	Indonesian Teachers' Association
PLPG ( <i>Pendidikan Pelatihan Profesi Guru</i> )	90 Hours In-service Training
RPP ( <i>Rencana Pembelajaran</i> )	Lesson Planning
RSBI ( <i>Rintisan Sekolah Bertaraf Internasional</i> )	Pilot School of International Standard
SBM	School-based Management
SMA/SLTA ( <i>Sekolah Menengah Atas</i> )	Senior High School
SMK ( <i>Sekolah Menengah Kejuruan</i> )	Vocational School
SMP/SLTP ( <i>Sekolah Menengah Pertama</i> )	Junior High School
SNP ( <i>Standar Nasional Pendidikan</i> )	National Education Standard
SSN ( <i>Sekolah Standar Nasional</i> )	National Standard School
TEFL	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TESL	Teaching English as a Second Language

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## ABSTRACT

Since the enactment of Law No. 22/1999, the Indonesian Government has been restructuring its governance system from a centralized to a decentralized system. In terms of education, the Law No. 20/2003 stipulates the national education standard. Article 38 states that, “The primary and secondary education curriculum is developed according to their relevance to each group or unit education as well as school/madrasah committee (*komite sekolah*) under the coordination and supervision of the District Education Office (DEO – *Dinas Pendidikan Kabupaten/Kotamadya*), the Ministry of National Education (MONE), or *Kantor Departemen Agama Kabupaten/Kota*, the Ministry of Religious Affairs (MORA) for primary education and the Province for secondary education”. To respond to this Law, the Indonesian government has stipulated a national education standard consisting of the eight national standards – graduate competency, content, process, personnel, infrastructure, management, funding, and assessment standards.

English was mandated as the first foreign language to be taught after independence in 1945. In this globalization era, serious efforts have been made to strengthen the quality of English teaching in Indonesia, through the enactment of the 2006 School-based Curriculum (*KTSP – Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan*) within the framework of communicative competence. The government required all schools in Indonesia to begin implementing this curriculum in 2010; however, there has been no evaluation to do (*Liputan6.com*).

This evaluation study focused on case studies of 12 selected schools of the 504 junior high schools in the province of Yogyakarta. The selection was done through systematic random sampling – a modified form of a simple random sampling in a systematic way (Kemper et al., 2003; Cohen, et al., 2007; Gay et al., 2009). The research participants consisted of three groups in the consultation process: (1) national, regional and local education officials responsible for the implementation of KTSP curriculum in the schools under their responsibility, (2) English language academics in four Yogyakarta universities responsible for the training of English language teachers, and (3) as the key strategy, case studies of twelve systematically selected junior secondary schools in the Yogyakarta province managed by MONE and MORA. Documentation, survey schedules, interviews, focus group discussions and class observation were used to gather the data. The data obtained through this research strategy were analyzed through SPSS statistical analysis, content analysis and data triangulation.

The results show that decentralization in education created challenges such as the lack of capacity at local level to assume responsibilities from the central government and a ‘culture’ of conditioning individuals to follow orders from the top, implementing rather than initiating or designing policy. Regarding the teaching of English, whilst the vision and mission of the government in respect of ELT in Indonesian high schools is clearly outlined, the disjuncture between the district level and the individual schools resulted in role confusion among district staff and individual schools. The head of the DEO seemed only to rubberstamp the guiding school documents (curriculum, syllabus, and lesson plans) without any serious appraisal. The assessment and supervision of teachers rarely occurred and in-service training for teachers was lacking and, in any case, seemed not to impact on teachers’ performance in the classroom due to lack of monitoring and supervision from either principal or district supervisor.

Teachers’ limited capacity in the teaching of English was also a major finding. Most teachers had insufficient capacity, in particular, regarding the pedagogical and professional aspects. Due to the

pressure to prepare students for the national examination, most teachers ignored the notion of communicative competence as written in the Government Regulation No. 19/2005. Their attention was more on how to develop linguistic competence and they did not give proper attention to actional, sociocultural or strategic competences to achieve the discourse competence as the target of communicative competence as modelled by Celce-Murcia (1995). The culture discussed in class was target culture content designed for much younger learners. There was a lack of motivation for both teachers and students to communicate in English despite the linguistic demands of a global world.

The lack of any systematic evaluation of the implementation of the ELT elements and also of any predecessor curricula and their underlying administrative philosophies seemed to lead to poor and ill-informed decision-making and a lack of appreciation of the on-ground realities of teaching the ELT elements. Inadequate facilities of schools occurred in most schools, especially the rural schools and madrasahs. This was hindering students to begin meeting the global cultural and economic imperative to be proficient in English in a trilingual context.

## **CHAPTER 1**

### **INTRODUCTION**

This research concerns the evaluation of English language teaching (EFL – English as a Foreign Language) in junior high schools at Years Seven to Nine in the Indonesian province of Yogyakarta. English language programs have been mandated by the Indonesian Ministry for National Education (MONE) in the context of a globalizing economy and a changing schooling system. The methodology is partly as an extension of the researcher's experience as an assessor of Indonesian government schools and based on the evaluation methodology employed in two major Australian educational reviews, one being an evaluation of the multicultural education program in 1984 and the other being a review of immigration and schooling in the 1990s.

The rapid growth of teaching English as a global language will be discussed in this first chapter in tandem with the complexity of Indonesia's sociolinguistic context with the national language (Bahasa Indonesia), the regional languages and the teaching of foreign languages. The notion of a decentralized schooling system through the enactment of the Law No. 22/1999 in which administrative responsibility lies in the hands of local districts will be the focus of the following sub-section. To contextualize the teaching of English in this decentralized system, the history of the English language curriculum will be outlined, followed by the research objectives, research questions, research limitation and the research theoretical framework before presenting an outline of the structure of the thesis.

#### **1.1 English as a Global Language**

English has become regarded as a global language whose special role is recognized in every country (Crystal, 2003). It is a tool of communication among countries as they have engaged with the rapid growth of the world, particularly in political and economic development. This significant growing of English, according to Crystal (2003), is because of geographical-historical and socio-cultural factors. Beginning with the voyages to America, Asia and the Antipodes, the expansion of the British Empire developed to Africa and the South Pacific covering three major oceans, the Atlantic, Indian and Pacific. Its spread has occurred through its status as the official language or semi-official language in many newly independent states (ibid, p. 29). Crystal (2003) said English is an official language in 70 countries whereas Hoffmann (2011) noted that English is the official or co-official language in 45 countries. The number is different because 'there is a relative disagreement in the linguistic literature around the definition of official or co-official language, national or state language' (Hoffmann, 2011, p. 16). In terms of the number of people speaking English, Pennycook (1994, p. 7-8) asserted 'the rough calculation regarding the number of speakers

of English worldwide between 700 million and one billion covering native speakers of English, speakers of English as a second (or intranational) language, and speakers of English as a foreign (or international) language’, whereas Crystal (2003, p. 61) estimated between 1.1 billion and 1.8 billion, with 320 million to 380 million who are native speakers of the language. Graddol (2006) predicted the total number of English speakers in the next 10 to 15 years up until about 2020 would reach up to 2 billion. Crystal also noted in 2008 that the highest estimate number of people speaking, listening, reading and writing in English could be already 2 billion.

The socio-cultural factor facilitating the dominance of English is shown in the most important arenas such as politics, business, entertainment, international relations, mass media, international travel, international safety, education and communications (Crystal, 1997, 2003). As an example, English has become the primary language in computer software. Assuming factors such as the function of English language or its active promotion, English has now become the most important language to be learned. An Indian linguist Kachru (1986) working in the U.S.A once said that knowing English is like possessing the fabled Aladdin’s lamp. Once it opens, the linguistic gates to international business, technology, science and travel are provided.

The widespread presence of English has been debated among scholars. Kachru (1998) suggested countries using English could be listed under three categories: the inner circle where English is the primary language (USA, UK, Ireland, Canada, Australia and New Zealand), the outer circle – English as an important secondary role in multilingual countries colonized by the British or Americans (Bangladesh, Malaysia, Philippines, India, Pakistan, Singapore), and the expanding circle – English as an international language, including some who were colonized by the inner circle countries (Brunei, Hong Kong, Japan, Thailand, South Korea, China, Myanmar and Indonesia). Since English has become a widespread means of international communication, Kachru emphasizes the dynamic development of English occurs in both outer and expanding circles, not in the inner circle.

Phillipson (1992) has coined the term of linguistic imperialism to describe the initial spread of English. He argued that English had been dominant across countries because of the ‘establishment and continued reconstruction of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages’ (p. 47) whereas Crystal (2003) maintained that English has become an international language due to ‘the power of its people – especially their political and military power’ (p. 9).

Phillipson (1992) emphasized that the current position of English in this world is a natural result of the world forces in which the policy made by the government in English speaking countries is to promote its worldwide use for economic and political purposes. He makes clear that globalization



has been commonly perceived by countries that have power in terms of politics, economy and culture to other countries and categorized countries into three: (1) powerful countries (USA, Canada, Great Britain, Australia and New Zealand) are associated with the 'Center', (2) the powerless or perhaps less powerful, particularly due to historical colonial heritage (India or Nigeria) or countries using English as an international link language (Japan and Scandinavian countries) with 'Periphery', and (3) English as a foreign language for countries in which it is taught in schools but not used in education nor public administration. He further said that language education is closely interlocked with economic liberalization and the rise of the dominance of the U.S.A in politics, economy, culture and information technology (Phillipson, 1997, p. 239).

In a similar vein, Trudgill (2001) as cited in Hoffmann (2011, p. 17), categorized countries using English in three domains: first language (Great Britain), second language – for internal means of communication in multilingual countries (India) and no internal lingua franca in non-multilingual countries (Kuwait) – and foreign language as an international lingua franca. This categorization according to Hoffmann (2011) is not stable in describing the global linguistic situation. Switzerland, for example, is a country using English as an international lingua franca but now English has moved to become its second language.

Globalization also brings forth the issue of world Englishes as Kachru (1998) pointed out. He said that English by the year 2000 had become world Englishes in Asia or the world of Asian Englishes. English is the main medium for bilingualism/multilingualism in the whole Asian region, particularly in East Asia, and English users seemed to be significantly increasing. Singh (2002) contended:

“Within a decade or so the number of people speaking English as a second language will far outnumber those for whom it is a first language. Those who speak ‘English as a first language’ could become minority stakeholders as English expands to become a global resource. As a consequence, English cultural resources might no longer provide the focus for a global English language and culture” (Singh, 2002, p. 141).

To maintain and secure their 'national language', the U.K and U.S.A have tried to lead the power of English through actively participating in the global market. Pennycook (1994) described how the goal of English language teaching has been targeted to become a global commodity. He further describes the total expenditure on English language was estimated about 6.25 billion pounds (US \$ 9.5 billion) for EFL/ESL training, TOEFL/IELTS exams, and textbooks – 16.4 per cent taken for the British market, 32 per cent by North American, 32 per cent by Australasia and the Far East and 16 per cent by Europe (Pennycook, 1994). This figure shows that English language teaching not only has become a British political goal but also economic goal of Inner Circle countries. Crystal (2008) has written, 'The field of teaching English as a foreign language is ripe for serious study' (p.

4). He further said that there was no available figures about the number of learners learning English as a foreign language; however, the estimation was ‘English radio programmes are received by 150 million people in over 120 countries. 100 million receive programmes from the BBC External Service’ (p.4).

As coined by Bourdieu (1991) languages are currency for education; the function of language can be realized in business and trade. Singh (2002, p. 139) also noted that ‘the British Council would like to expand the global markets for its products – the learning of the English language, new methods of teaching it, and English language tests – using the new communications technologies. However, he further noted due to the impact of globalization, providers of international education faced new social and ethical responsibilities involving ‘public interests’ of a number of countries:

- (1) English is regarded as the language of power, success and prestige;
- (2) English is associated with inequality.

(Singh, 2002, p. 134-135)

Also, English has been defined as ‘(1) native language (primary language of the great majority of the population), (2) second language (the official language but not the main language of the country), and (3) foreign language (not used or spoken very much in the daily life but learned at school)’ (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 27). McKay (2002) further defined English as an international language used for wider communication both among individuals from different countries and between individuals from one country. This international status was accompanied by four central features (Brutt-Griffler, 2002), namely (1) development of the global world market together with the business community, together with global scientific, cultural, and intellectual exchanges, (2) establishment of a local language in multilingual contexts, (3) it is learnt by various levels of society, and (4) it is learnt by individuals acquiring the language. In summary, as Kachru (1998) pointed out, English has become a widespread means of international communication not only for countries in the inner and outer circles but also in the expanding circle in which countries increasingly it has become a tool for people to communicate, including in Indonesia whose official language is Bahasa Indonesia.

## **1.2 The Indonesian Sociolinguistic Context**

In Indonesia, English language education has been introduced into a complex sociolinguistic context centred around the national language. De Swaan’s theory (2001) which is based on Bourdieu’s term – linguistic capital – can describe the dominance of a language. Generally, countries as victims of colonization might declare their official language when they have become independent. The official language, for example, can be the language of the colonializing countries

or one of the local multilingual languages. In India, for example, Hindi has the largest number of native speakers (Hoffmann, 2011). However, a strong objection comes from southern India where the various Dravidian languages are spoken. Thus, English continues to be a language for communication.

A different situation has arisen in Indonesia. Colonialized by the Dutch for 350 years, Bahasa Indonesia was elevated as the lingua franca of Indonesia to develop its unity, and not Javanese, one of the vernacular languages with the most users. ‘What happened in Indonesia with Bahasa Indonesia was Gandhi’s dream for India’ according to De Swaan (2001). His assertion is that ‘the more large local languages are present, the stronger the competition for becoming the national medium’. In the case of Indonesia, Bahasa Indonesia as a variety of Malay was chosen as the official language for several reasons:

“Malay...was chosen mainly because, since it had been used as a lingua franca in the archipelago for centuries, it was already understood by many citizens of the new Republic. The only other language that was seriously considered at that time was Javanese...However, since Javanese with its complex speech levels was considered to have encouraged the existence of a feudalistic social system and further since it is much more difficult to learn than Malay...the Javanese themselves readily agreed to the choice of Malay.” (De Swaan, 2001, p. 90)

The Indonesian language was derived from the Malay language (*Bahasa Melayu*) that was used as the means of communication among traders and travelers. Sneddon (2003) describes how the Malay language spread east to the Moluccas (Spice Islands) and even further afield throughout the archipelago. He adds,

“Before the 16<sup>th</sup> century, there were two classes of Malay ‘indigenous’ or ‘traditional’ varieties in Sumatra, Malaya, nearby islands and some coastal areas of Borneo, and ‘non-indigenous’ or ‘post-creole’ varieties, spoken by populations who were originally exposed to Malay as a contact language and whose original languages were eventually replaced by it.” (Sneddon, 2003, p. 8)

The Indonesian language was first introduced as the official language at the first Indonesian Youth Congress on 30 April – 02 May 1928, in Batavia, by Muhammad Yamin, who argued that the future alternatives for a national language were either Malay or Javanese. Eventually, Mohamad Tabrani, one of the organizers of the congress, argued that Malay could not be a language of unity. It should be changed to Bahasa Indonesia, not Bahasa Melayu. It was then put forward to the Second Indonesian Youth Congress which was held in Batavia on 27 – 28 October, 1928.

This youth proclamation brought about the Indonesian language as the language of national unity. Undoubtedly, in a sociolinguistic context with many different local languages and dialects, Bahasa Indonesia has become the most important language to be used by Indonesian people and helped in establishing a national identity amongst the different regions in the process of national unification.

The number of people speaking Bahasa Indonesia keeps increasing, in urban centres and towns through school education, increased geographical mobility caused by the centralized civil and military service and, lastly, the increasing number of interethnic/multilingual marriages (Nababan, 1991).

The estimated total population of Indonesia in 2013 is 251,160, 124 with Javanese (40.6 %) as the largest ethnic groups. These Javanese people are concentrated in Central and East Java as well as in the transmigration areas across provinces. Regarding Bahasa Indonesia, Gordon (2005) suggested there would be an estimated 23 million first language speakers of Bahasa Indonesia (11 % of the population) and up to 140 million second language speakers (68 % of the population) in 2000. In other words, Bahasa Indonesia as a national language is currently spoken by the majority of people only as a second language in Indonesia whereas Sneddon (2003) points out less than 5 per cent of the Indonesian population spoke Bahasa Indonesia at the time of independence in 1945.

Its status as the national language then was clearly mandated in the 1945 basic document of the Indonesian republic (Indonesian Constitution), the so-called *UUD 1945, pasal 36 (Undang-Undang Dasar 45, article 36)*. Due to the very diverse indigenous languages (746 according to MONE) spoken by 340 different ethnic groups), Bahasa Indonesia became the language of national unity as written in the Indonesian motto, *Bhinneka Tunggal Ika* (Unity in Diversity).

The Indonesian language is commonly used in all government, business and education sectors and in the mass media. It is the language used when people of two different regional backgrounds communicate with each other such as when discussing politics and using technologies in the modern context. It is the language which represents nationalism or patriotism, national unity and solidarity. Also, people speak differently according to the specific situation, or the particular relationship, and according to their social and educational background. The language then is well developed and seems to have diglossic characteristics (Samsuri, 1987; Sneddon, 2003; Turner and Wong, 2010).

In formal situations such as giving speeches and having documents at schools or in the office, for instance, people generally speak Bahasa Indonesia. They use standard Indonesian (Bahasa Indonesia *baku*) which is taught at all education levels – playgroup up to higher learning as a subject in schools. It is a medium of communication in the teaching learning process and one of the compulsory school subjects. However, in casual conversations for instance, Indonesians may communicate in informal Bahasa Indonesia. This diglossic language keeps growing rapidly and is commonly used in provincial cities such as Yogyakarta, Bandung, Surabaya and Medan. It has become the language of education, literature, radio, television and the press. The growth of

Indonesian in lexical and syntax terms is mostly influenced by local languages such as Javanese and Sundanese (Sneddon, 2003; Turner and Wong, 2010; Poedjasoedarma et al., 1979).

The teaching and learning of Bahasa Indonesia starts from primary up to the higher level of education. In junior secondary schools, for example, Bahasa Indonesia must be taught three times a week for 90 minutes per class. The competences are organized around the four skills, *mendengarkan* (listening), *berbicara* (speaking), *membaca* (reading), and *menulis* (writing). However, its teaching and learning have thus far resulted in unsatisfactory achievement. Most students failed Bahasa Indonesia in the national 2010 examination (Provincial Education Official (PEO or *Dikpora*), 2010). It might be due to teaching about the language rather than how to create a text (Samsuri, 1987, p. 42).

Regarding languages in Indonesia, Widodo and Fardhani (2011) have categorized languages into three, based on the number of speakers and their socio-economic status, prestige, power and privilege. They are (1) national lingua franca (Bahasa Indonesia), (2) majority indigenous languages (Javanese, Sundanese, Batak, Madurese, Minangkabau, Buginese and Macassar), and (3) minority indigenous languages (Alas, Alor, Bahau, Luwu, Lom, Hukumina and Mapia).

Javanese and Bahasa Indonesia are from the Austronesian family. The most polite Javanese language belongs to Solo and Yogyakarta (Poedjasoedarma et al., 1979; Purwadi et al., 2005). It has three speech levels according to the degree of politeness. They are *krama* (the most polite level), *madya* (medium/average), and *ngoko* (the least polite level). The difference is in the form of words, syntax, morphology and phonology (Poedjasoedarma et al., 1979).

Yogyakarta is one of the provinces rich in culture, language and dialects in which people mostly speak the Javanese language both in formal and informal situations. Some communicate in informal (low variety) Bahasa Indonesia (Sneddon, 2003; Turner, 2010). In some areas such as in the city of Yogyakarta, and Sleman, most people are from other areas such as Jakarta, Surabaya and other big cities because Yogyakarta is often said to be the centre of education, with a conducive environment for learning and relatively low living costs. The Javanese language is one of the school subjects taught as local content from kindergarten to secondary level (junior and senior high school). It is taught twice a week for 90 minutes per class and the medium of instruction is Bahasa Indonesia and Javanese. Also, it is strongly recommended by the district education offices to use Javanese on Saturdays from kindergarten up to senior high school to maintain Java's cultural heritage.

In conjunction with the teaching of Bahasa Indonesia and the local language (Javanese), as a further complexity in this linguistic context, students learn a foreign language as well. English as the international lingua franca is the first international language to be taught from primary to university level. It is, as outlined above, because English plays an important role in the global economy as a means of communication with people from other countries including Asia which is now widely using English to conduct business. Kirkpatrick (2007) said that English has been used as a lingua franca by people for whom it is not their first language. The Association of South-East Asian Nations or ASEAN accepts English as its de facto lingua franca. So, the teaching of English has achieved prominence to develop communication among nations as well as the rapid growth of communications technology. The English language curriculum ought to cater for the needs of students to prepare themselves for this globalization era. But English had been put forward by the Indonesian people as its first foreign language at the time of its independence long before the invention of the term 'globalization'. An early Report by the The British Council (1975) highlighted five reasons why English ought to be taught in Indonesia, that is, the economic advantages, its necessity for any national development, 75 % printed materials or resources in English, common language used in foreign company operations and meeting the needs of international tourists.

Other languages that are currently offered and have become optional languages in secondary schools (*SMP* and *SMA*) and higher learning institutions are Arabic, French, German, and Chinese. In secondary school, English is generally taught three times a week for 90 minutes per class. The teaching and learning of English need to be in accordance with the competency standard for secondary junior school as stipulated by MONE. As well, English is examined across the country through a nationally prescribed examination for junior and senior high schools. The situation of English language education in Indonesia is detailed in section 1.5 including its political, social and educational implications.

### **1.3 The Changing Indonesian Schooling System**

The emergence of English as a global language has already had considerable impact on policies and practices in countries categorized as in the outer and expanding circles. In the outer circle, English has become their second language that has important functions in the society and it co-exists together with the indigenous languages. In the expanding circle, English has become the favorite foreign language to be taught in Asia Pacific countries in various ways, for example, lowering of the starting age for formal English language education such as in Brunei, China, Hong Kong, Indonesia, South Korea, Philippines, Taiwan, and Thailand and some in secondary level such as Cambodia, Laos, Japan, Myanmar and Vietnam (Kam, 2002; Nunan, 2003). In Qatar,

'Education for New Era' is an internationally benchmarked curriculum in which English is one of the four core subjects. In Japan, in 1989 and 1990, the Japanese Ministry of Education released guidelines for the study of foreign languages in junior and senior high schools. LoCastro (1996) notes that one of the primary aims of the new curriculum is to promote listening and speaking skills as a way to develop the communicative competence of Japanese students. The increasing feature of English in Japan, South Korea and China sees English to be regarded as a curricular subject (Hu & McKay, 2012) as well as 'developing students' practical competence in using English for communication' (Ibid, p. 356). This increasingly important role encourages teachers to implement communicative language teaching and replace the audiolingual and translation methods. In the Indonesian context, English is the first foreign language to be taught since independence at secondary level and becomes the popular language content taught from Year 4 onwards, and even from Year 1 in some primary schools.

To respond to the globalizing era, the government put in place a strategy for national education through the 'international classes' which are seen as prestigious programs. The aims are to produce graduates at a national and international level as declared in Law No. 20/2003 and elaborated in the Government Regulation No. 23/2006 about the standard of graduates' competency at elementary, junior and senior high school level as well as improving intelligence, personality, morality and skills for independent life and be able to continue to further education. The policy on international classes or *Rintisan Sekolah Bertaraf Internasional* is clearly stated in Law No. 20/2003 regarding the national education system. Article 50 stipulates:

"Government and/or local government implement minimally one school in all level of education to develop towards international standard educational institution." (Law No. 20/2003 *Pasal 50 Ayat 3*)

According to Sugiharto (2013, p. 148), the Indonesian government has been described as obsessed with 'the Western intellectual tradition' through the establishment of international pilot project schools (*Rintisan Sekolah Bertaraf Internasional*) and schools with international standard (*Sekolah Bertaraf Internasional*) at secondary levels beginning in 2008. He noted that the national education system has built its educational philosophy on the dominant ideology of inner circle countries – the U.S., the U.K., Australia and Canada.

Since the enactment of Law No. 22/1999, the Indonesian government has been restructuring its governance system from a centralized to a decentralized system. To implement this Law, the Government established a Commission of National Education (*Komisi Nasional Pendidikan*) in February 2001. Subsequently, KNP worked on its report until December 2001 and made the recommendation to develop boards of education (*dewan pendidikan*) at the district level as well as school committee (*komite sekolah*) that were designed to promote democratic principles in schools.



Through the issuance of Law No. 20/2003 on the National Education System, the involvement of Boards of Education and School Committees was to support and increase the capacity of districts and schools. It clearly states:

“The community has a role in planning, executing, controlling, and evaluating education through Boards of Education and School Committees (*Masyarakat berperan dalam peningkatan mutu pelayanan pendidikan yang meliputi perencanaan, pengawasan, dan evaluasi program pendidikan melalui dewan pendidikan dan komite sekolah/madrasah*).”

“Both Boards of Education and School Committees as independent bodies have roles in improving the quality of education service by providing advice, direction and support in the form of human resources, facilities and control of education at the national, provincial and district levels respectively with no structural hierarchy (*Dewan pendidikan sebagai lembaga mandiri dibentuk dan berperan dalam peningkatan mutu pelayanan pendidikan dengan memberikan pertimbangan, arahan dan dukungan tenaga, sarana dan prasarana, serta pengawasan pendidikan pada tingkat Nasional, Propinsi, dan Kabupaten/ Kota yang tidak mempunyai hubungan hirarkis*).”

(Law No. 20/2003, p. 24)

Additionally, the Ministry of National Education (MONE) issued Decree No. 044/U/2002, (KepMinDikNas) regarding community involvement in education through the establishment of School-based Management (SBM) mechanisms. The Education Law (2003) Article 56 and the Government Regulation No. 17/2010 states that the community (represented by the school committee and school committee) is required to participate in moving towards better quality education. Such involvement of various stakeholders such as the District Education Office (DEO), the Board of Education (BOE), communities and school councils make schools accord with the situation of a community as well as the school itself. In terms of education management, Indonesia has undergone very significant change over the last two decades in systemic terms as a result of central government policy and program initiatives. DEOs are managed by MOHA (Ministry of Home Affairs) while MONE coordinates education.

MORA (Ministry of Religious Affairs) has responsibility for Islamic schools such as *Madrasah Tsanawiyah* and *Aliyah*. These schools, however, are in a problematic position. When they are considered as religious institutions, they fall under the responsibility of the Ministry of Religious Affairs. MONE generally has responsibility for all schools, both government and private, through *Kantor Pendidikan Kabupaten/Kotamadya* or District Education Office (DEO) while schools under MORA are Islamic-based madrasahs. Both government and private schools which come under the responsibility of DEO (MONE) and *Kantor Kementerian Agama Kabupaten/Kota* or Kemenag (MORA).

Due to the devolvement of operational management and responsibility, governance was put into the hands of the district rather than at provincial and national level; however, the management system seems more complicated. Any level of schools technically are under the supervision of MONE and MORA; however, administratively, DEO managers who are recruited by district chiefs report to



MOHA. DEOs are therefore responsible to and subordinate to both MONE and MOHA. To make it even more complex and problematic, DEO is also influenced by the Provincial Education Office (PEO), the Local House of Representatives, the local MORA office and the local Board of Education, an independent body that provides for community participation to improve the quality, equity and efficiency of educational management in a district. The Ministerial Decree No. 044/U/2002 (*KepMinDikNas*, 2002) stipulates that the board members are recruited and selected from: (1) community representatives covering NGOs, community leaders, education leaders, school foundations staff, representatives of industry and commerce, professional associations, professional education organizations and school committees, (2) representatives from government and the legislature (maximum 4-5 persons). The maximum number of education board members is 17 persons. This decentralized system has meant the devolvement of operational management and responsibility to local government provinces and districts in terms of local policy and planning, local resource management (facilities, funding and personnel), local curriculum development (implementation and supervision), and local educational quality assurance (Bjork, 2003; Haryanto, 2010).

Problems, however, have subsequently arisen as the consequence of the devolved system as recent studies have shown, such as irrelevant and inaccurate data collection, unclear responsibilities and coordination, and problems resulting from inexperience at both national and sub-national levels (Suhardi, 2010). This results in fuzziness in the lines of responsibility from central government to provincial and district levels. Local government administrations have not been well managed; there has been a lack of coordination between the districts and provinces and the districts and central government.

Indonesia is neither fully centralized nor fully decentralized, because after decentralization, most decision making processes were handed down to local government such as for public works, health, education and culture, agriculture, communication, industry and trade, capital investment, environment, land, co-operatives and manpower affairs (Law 22/1999, Article 11). Some portfolios, however, such as foreign affairs, economic matters, religious affairs, defense, national security and judicial processes were retained by the central government. Therefore, the system falls somewhere between centralized and decentralized poles of governance.

Despite the shift to a decentralized system, it still remains a national education system. The Government Regulation No. 19/2005 stipulates the eight standards that should be achieved by each level of schooling. These standards must be achieved by all levels of education, primary to secondary schools. Based on Government Regulation No. 19/2005, these standards are defined as follows:

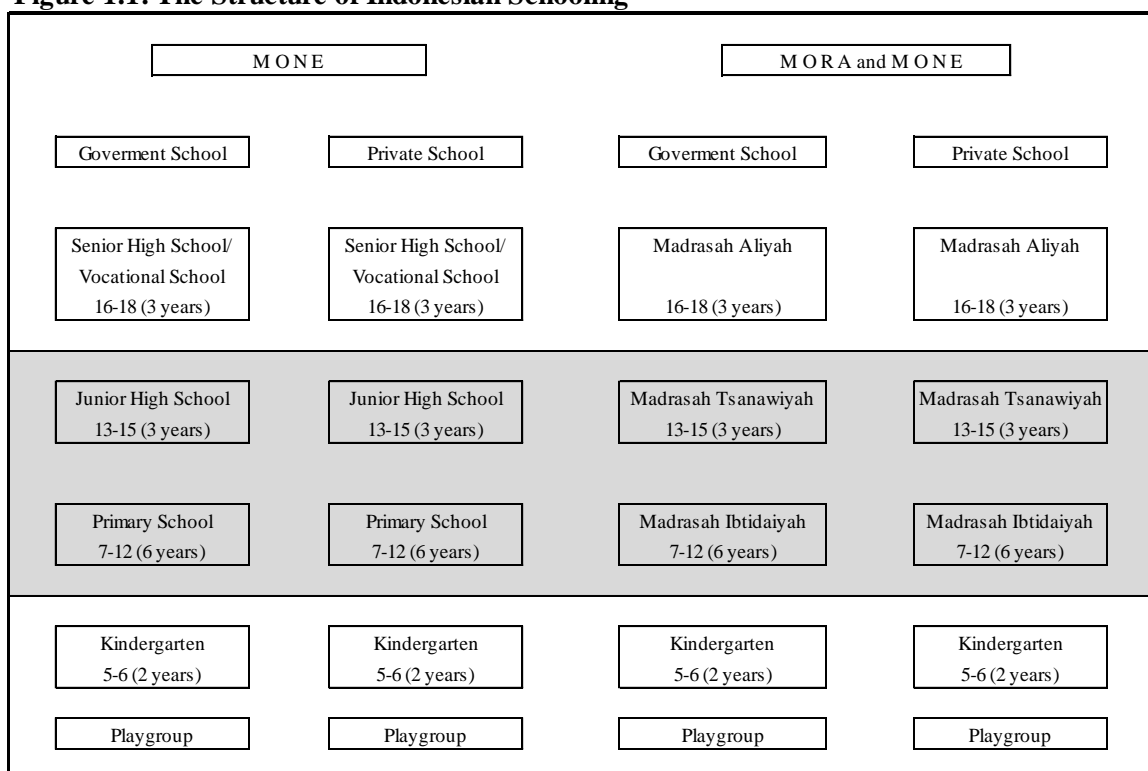
1. **Graduate Competency standard** refers to the ability of graduates possessing the intellectual, spiritual and physical resources required for further education or earn a living in a community. This means that [junior high school] graduates must have sufficient life skills to enable them to pursue these alternatives (MONE Regulation No. 23/2006),
2. **Content standard** refers to the scope of materials and level of competences which is embodied within the criteria concerning graduate competences, graduate study materials, subjects studied and learning competences syllabus which must be fulfilled by participants in education in particular levels and types of education (MONE Regulation No. 22/2006),
3. **Process standard** refers to planning of teaching and learning, covering syllabus and lesson plan which contains aims, teaching materials, methods, sources and assessment (MONE Regulation No. 41/2007),
4. **Personnel standard** refers to physical and intellectual performance required of teachers and school staff, including their educational background, pre-service educational criteria, physical and intellectual suitability and in-service training (MONE Regulation No. 12/2007, No. 13/2007, No. 16/2007, No. 24/2008, No. 25/2008, No. 26/2008),
5. **Infrastructure standard** refers to the minimum standards for classrooms, sports centre, prayer space, library, laboratory, playground, learning resources, and information technology equipment of schools (MONE Regulation No. 24/2007),
6. **Management standard** refers to the planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating of educational activities for all levels of education to achieve their effectiveness and efficiency (MONE Regulation No. 19/2007),
7. **Funding standard** refers to all the components and the amount of operational funding for each level of education for each year (MONE Regulation No. 69/2009),
8. **Assessment standard** refers to the mechanisms, procedures and instrumentation for assessing the learning outcomes of participants in education (MONE Regulation No. 20/2007).

These eight standards are annually monitored and assessed by the Indonesian central government through the National Education Standard Agency (*Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan - BSNP*) which gives an annual rating of A, B or C. In terms of school category, MONE divides schools into three categories: (1) Potential Schools [schools which may be classified as Standard Formal Schools], (2) National Standard School (SSN – *Sekolah Standar Nasional*), and (3) Pilot School of International Standard (RSBI – *Rintisan Sekolah Bertaraf Internasional*). Each category includes government (public) and private schools. Standard formal schools are schools that have not achieved the eight national standards but they have “the potential” to develop into national standard schools. National standard schools are schools that have achieved the eight national standards set by the government. Pilot schools of international standard are those that have achieved the eight

standards and have developed beyond the expected national standards. The aim of the pilot school of international standard is to develop graduates who are competitive on both national and international scales. MONE had provided more funds for the schools when they acquire standards underlined by the government. It is to be noted the assessment can be an achievement for schools to increase the level of schooling such as potential schools becoming national standard school (*Sekolah Standar Nasional*) and SSN then becomes international school standard (RSBI). School status is possibly, if not probably, used as a reference point for parents to choose which schools to send their children to.

Law No. 20/2003 on the National Education System states that the structure of education in Indonesia begins with *Pendidikan Anak Usia Dini* (PAUD) or early childhood stage which is not compulsory and is categorized into kindergarten and playgroup starting from the age of 0 to six years old. The Provincial Education Office of Yogyakarta website listed 24 public and 2,044 private kindergartens but no information regarding playgroups (see Figure 1.1).

**Figure 1.1: The Structure of Indonesian Schooling**



The nine basic education years cover primary school or *Sekolah Dasar* (SD in 6 years) with the school starting age 7 and junior high school, *Sekolah Menengah Pertama* (SMP in 3 years) as highlighted in grey in Figure 1.1. Senior high school includes general high school (*Sekolah Menengah Atas* in 3 years) and senior vocational schools (*Sekolah Menengah Kejuruan* or SMK). Higher education refers to education after senior high school including diploma, bachelor, master

and doctoral programs. The national examination is conducted twice, at Years 9 and 12, with the core subjects examined (Bahasa Indonesia, English, mathematics and natural science for SMP and plus social science for SMA).

MONE has responsibility for all primary and secondary schools, both government and private. There are two types of private secular and private religious institutions, such as *Muhammadiyah*, pesantren or Christian schools. MORA oversees both government and private primary schools (*madrasah ibtidaiyah*), junior high schools (*madrasah tsanawiyah*) and senior high schools (*madrasah aliyah*) while private schooling is mostly pesantren (Islamic boarding school). Any level of schools technically are under the supervision of MONE and MORA. MONE has responsibility for elementary (SD – aged 7-12), junior (SMP – aged 13-15) and senior high schools (SMA/SMK – aged 16-18) and MORA has responsibility for Islamic schools, both government and private schools; some private schools are in the form of pesantren. Also, MONE has responsibility in these Islamic schools. Christian schools are funded by private foundations and managed under MONE.

In fact, both Ministries share similarities due to centralized requirements such as the national curriculum, examinations and funding. This structural dualism was made in 1975 through the Three Ministers' Decree (the Ministers of National Education, Religion and Internal Affairs). This Decree imposed on madrasahs to have 30 per cent religious subjects and 70 per cent secular subjects. This proportion was the opposite to the previous curriculum (Zuhdi, 2005). With the combination of religious and secular subjects, students in madrasahs were able to participate in the national examination and had the right to continue their study further. Even though the response of the Muslim community was negative, the Government continued to 'modernize' madrasahs through the enactment of Education Laws in 1989 and 2003 stating that madrasahs are now like secular schools except for the religion subjects which are divided into five – *Fiqh* (Islamic jurisprudence), *Akidah/Akhlak* (faith and morality), *Quran/Hadith* (Islamic holy book and the Prophet's traditions), Islamic history and Arabic (Parker and Raihani, 2011). Thus, the curriculum for madrasahs is thus more overloaded than general schools with a resulting impact upon teachers' and students' concentration levels (Parker and Raihani, 2011).

In such a shift to decentralization, Yogyakarta, which is regarded as the centre of education shows significant increase on students' enrolment in elementary and junior high schools. According to the 2006/2007 Nine Year Basic Education Report (*Wajib Belajar 9 Tahun*), Yogyakarta, Jakarta and Bali are the three highest achieving provinces as measured by the basic education Gross Enrolment Rate (*angka partisipasi kasar*) that recorded significant achievements with more than 90 per cent of its 7-12 and 13-15 age cohorts enrolled in elementary and junior high schools (Haryanto, 2010).

This participation rate is very significant. The radical changes regarding basic schooling were marked in 1989 through Education Law No 2. The Nine year basic education system was officially introduced in 1994 with the target of reaching 95 % of the nation's students by 2004. The increasing number of junior high school enrolments significantly increased from 18 % in the mid 1970s to 70 % in 1997. In 2004, however, only 90 out of 440 districts had achieved the official target. Many students aged between 13 and 15 were not enrolled in compulsory 9-year basic education (Kristiansen & Pratikno, 2006).

To sum up, this decentralized system is probably unusual and may be unique. It can be seen, for instance, in terms of the overall education system, which is, in this case, under three different ministries (MONE, MORA and MOHA). As well, the shift from centralism to decentralism brings management tensions due to the unclear management responsibility that impacts upon the quality of schools, particularly school staff as the most important stakeholders in implementing the school curriculum. Based on the researcher's experience as an English language instructor for teacher certification program, various problems emerged particularly regarding teachers' proficiency and the pedagogical aspects of English language. Teachers found difficulties in what and how to implement such curriculum that was designed by schools as the name is 'the school-based curriculum'.

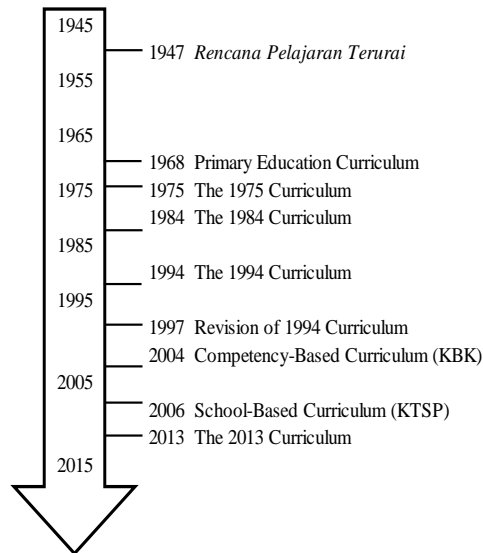
The status of English as a foreign language and the complexity of the Indonesian sociolinguistic learning context makes the teaching of English more and more complicated. As Sadtono (1997) points out, English was not and never would be either a social language or a second official language in Indonesia.

#### **1.4 The Changing of the Curriculum**

In the immediate aftermath of Indonesian independence day, 17<sup>th</sup> August 1945, the curriculum was still being affected by Dutch education practice because of its colonial domination for 350 years. The first curriculum was called the *Rentjana Pelajaran terurai 1947* (the 1947 lesson plan) which aimed at shaping the national character of the Indonesian people who had become *merdeka* or 'independent' and had equal rights with other nations. The priority was the development of national education which was clearly stated in the 1945 Indonesian constitution Article 13, saying that every citizen has the right to obtain an education and that the government has the responsibility to provide one national education system for both public and private schools, particularly primary and junior high schools.

When Soeharto was the second president in *Orde Baru* (New Era), the government started to develop the education sector. The primary school curriculum was launched in 1968 which emphasized the national philosophical foundation (Hamalik, 1971), the so called, PANCASILA –

**Figure 1.2: Timeline of the School Curriculum Development in Indonesia**



Source : The Ministry of National Education

(1) Belief in one and only one God, (2) A just and civilized humanity, (3) The unity of Indonesia, (4) Democracy guided by the inner wisdom of deliberations of representatives and (5) Social justice for all Indonesian people. This curriculum also concentrated on the development of intelligence, emotional well-being, arts and crafts and health education as well as basic knowledge of mathematics, the

Indonesian language and local language, science, social science, and a foreign language (English). In 1975, the Government again changed the curriculum with the notion of ‘objective management’ developed by the central curriculum. This curriculum covered in detail the objectives to achieve such as general instructional objective, specific instructional objective, material, teaching media and assessment. By the year 1983, the 1975 curriculum was considered no longer compatible with the needs of the community and the demands of science and technology. The 1984 curriculum came up with the notion of ‘students’ active learning’ (*Cara Belajar Siswa Aktif*) and also functional and effective instructional goals that should be defined first by teachers before setting the teaching materials.

A significant shift according to Bjork (2006) in the curriculum renewal was the introduction of the Local Content Curriculum (LCC) implemented in the 1994 curriculum. This curriculum devoted 20 per cent of time to locally designed subjects. This shift from a centralized curriculum that had been practiced since the Suharto era moved to subjects locally needed by the area such as developing either locally appropriate vocational skills or traditional arts. However, research on LCC found topics categorized as LCC were taught prior to 1994 (Bjork, 2006). He further said,

“Instructors continued to use the curricular materials and instructional methods they had relied on for years; only the titles of those classes or the manner in which they were configured; only the titles of those classes or the manner in which they were configured (such as the sequence of topics presented) had been altered.” (p. 140)

With the devolvement to the decentralized system in education in conjunction with the implementation of school based management, the competency based curriculum then was introduced in schools across provinces. Significant revisions occurred in 2006 and it has become known as the school-based curriculum or *Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan (KTSP)*.

To summarize, Indonesia has already changed its curriculum eight times (see Figure 1.2). After the data for this study had been collected, the Ministry changed the curriculum again and it was implemented in July 2013 to 6,410 schools across provinces – 1,270 SMA, 1,021 SMK, 1,521 SMP, and 2,598 SD or to 1,535,065 students from primary (SD) to secondary (SMP and SMA/SMK). The budget to implement the 2013 curriculum for SMA, for example, is 361 billion Rupiah, including in-service training for teachers and 90 billion Rupiah for teachers' modules (*Kompas*, 16 May 2013). This new curriculum, according to two senior linguists from two government universities, was similar to the previous curriculum (KTSP) with the emphasis on competences and character building outlined in the 2006 curriculum (*Kedaulatan Rakyat*, 22 May 2013). It particularly emphasizes values and moral education. In contrast, the Minister of National Education noted that this new curriculum is not a competency-based curriculum ([www.kompas.com](http://www.kompas.com) – retrieved on 29 July 2013), but a character-based one. The statement from the Minister is as follows:

*“Karena pada prakteknya, kurikulum baru yang kita terapkan ini memang lebih menarik dibanding kurikulum yang lama. Pada kurikulum ini berbasis karakter, bukan kompetensi (because practically, our new curriculum is more interesting than the previous one. This is character-based curriculum, not competency-based curriculum)”*

This character-based curriculum particularly emphasizes values and moral education as the 2003 Law stipulates that the functions of the national education are to develop the capability, character, and civilization of the nation for enhancing its intellectual capacity, and is aimed at developing learners' potential so that they become persons imbued with human values who are faithful and pious to the one and only God; who possess morals and noble character; who are healthy, knowledgeable, competent, creative, independent, and as citizens, are democratic and responsible (Article 3).

Indonesia has changed the curriculum as the logical consequences over decades; however, the significant change has occurred in the introduction of competency-based curriculum in early 2000s together with school-based management in this decentralization.



## 1.5 English Language Teaching (ELT) in Indonesia

After its independence, on the following day, the constitution, called the 1945 Indonesian Constitution, was proclaimed. Chapter XV, article 36 of this constitution declares that the language of the state is Bahasa Indonesia; however, the selection of a foreign language to serve Indonesians for international communication was not then decided. The Indonesian people were familiar with Dutch because it was taught in secondary schools before Independence. However, the choice eventually fell on English as the international language, not Dutch, because Dutch was the language of colonialism or language of the enemy (Thomas, 1968 as cited in Mistar, 2005, p. 78; Dardjowidjojo, 2000).

Thus, English was mandated as a compulsory subject in secondary schools from that time. MONE established an Inspectorate of English language instruction to be in charge of the supervision of English language teaching beginning on 27 December 1949. At this time, the Netherlands government acknowledged the sovereignty of the nation. Mr. Frits Wachendorff, a Dutchman who remained in Indonesia, was appointed to head the body and he first spelled out the objective of TEFL in Indonesia, that is, English was to be a foreign language and it was not and would never be either a social language or an official second language in either the Indonesian community or the administration of the country (Sadtono, 1997). Since independence, the efforts of standardizing the curriculum had been carried out in the 1974, 1984 and 1994 curriculums.

There is not much information regarding English language teaching in the era immediately after independence and it needs in-depth historical researching. The Grammar Translation Method reigned as it was left over by the Dutch (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). This can be seen from the textbooks used for senior high school level such as Abdurachman's *English Grammar*, Tobing's *Practical Exercises*, and de Maar and Pino's *English Passages for Translation*. People preferred British English and looked down on the American variety. However, because of the great demand for English teachers, in October 1953, the Indonesian Ambassador to the US, Ali Sastroamidjojo, approached the Institute of International Education for assistance to improve English teachers' capacity. Eventually through grants from the Ford Foundation, in-service training for English language teachers was held in ten cities throughout Indonesia. The goal was to introduce English language teaching into schools as speedily, effectively, and extensively as possible (Gregory, 1964 as cited in Dardjowidjojo, 2000). By the end of this project in July 1955, there were 1,025 trained teachers (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). The Ford Foundation also set up a two-year English teachers' training institute known as *Kursus B-1* (B-one Course), popularly named the Standard Training Centre (STC). There were only two, one in Yogyakarta was established on September 27, 1954, and the other was in Bukittinggi (West Sumatra) in October 1954.



Furthermore, a project to develop English teaching materials had been set up by the Ford Foundation. Employing the new graduates of STCs together with a group of American linguists, they prepared English textbooks for high schools in Salatiga. This project ended on July 15, 1962 with the publication of the ‘Salatiga Textbooks’ for junior and senior high school students.

In the early 1950s, the British Council had become involved in English language teaching and set up its headquarters in Bandung, West Java. However, program assistance was switched from school to university level while Australia and New Zealand helped Indonesia through their Colombo Plan which provided scholarships for teachers to obtain non-degree training, either in Australia or New Zealand.

With the Ford Foundation providing grants to revamp English language teaching in 1953, the notion of the audiolingual method had been introduced to English teachers. The spread of this approach was implemented through the English teaching materials and Salatiga textbooks which were popularly named as *English for SLTP*, written in 1958-1962. However, few textbooks reached schools and Book 3 contained lots of mistakes (British Council, 1975). These textbooks were reprinted and distributed to government schools though their number was still insufficient for rural areas. Additionally, the series *English for SLTA*, written in 1968-1972 was officially used in 1973, becoming the embryo of the 1975 curriculum. Due to insufficient supplies of these series, local publishers published other textbooks and competed with the Ministry materials. The British Council (1975) reported,

“The teaching materials are totally inadequate at all levels and all institutions except where the Council, Ford Foundation, USIS etc. have provided the necessary support for their ELT personnel. This deliberately blanket statement applies to all types of materials: books, supplementary readers, library books, journals, teaching aids, charts, tapes, films, film strips, and – in other subject areas – laboratory equipment, craft tools and materials etc. The normal Indonesian classroom contains 50-60 students in parallel rows of desks, listening to a teacher talking and occasionally putting a few words on the blackboard.” (The British Council Report, 1975, p. 5)

These two books, *English for SLTP* and *English for SLTA*, then became compulsory for students in the implementation of the 1975 curriculum. The 1975 curriculum can be seen as the development of the 1968 curriculum that targeted skills in this sequence – listening, speaking, reading and writing (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). Madya (2008) noted that the 1975 curriculum was obviously structurally oriented which was reflected in the subtopics which were mostly about grammatical structures. She further pointed out that the principles of language teaching and learning were begun by the introduction of the English sound system, English grammatical system, learning the culture, and extensive vocabulary. The curriculum consisted of three parts, part I with the curriculum aims, instructional goals, and topics, part II about topics and subtopics per semester, and part III about teaching materials. For the senior high school, Madya (2008) outlined how 61 topics to be taught,

48 topics were about grammar. The obvious weaknesses prior to the 1975 curriculum according to the British Council report (1975) were (1) complete absence of printed materials, (2) the abysmal salaries, (3) inadequate and poorly conceived pre- and in-service training, (4) poor physical conditions and very large classes, and (5) an administrative and promotional structure which tended to block rather than promote reforms.

By the year 1983, the 1975 curriculum was considered no longer compatible as language was seen as a social phenomenon. The oral approach that had dominated the teaching of English since the 1950s was replaced by the communicative competence approach which viewed language as an instrument of communication. People began to think of language use rather than language usage (Widdowson, 1978; Wilkins, 1976; Dardjowidjojo, 2000). Celce-Murcia (1991) also asserted,

“Those who have applied the philosophy to language teaching claim that communication is the goal of second or foreign language instruction and that the syllabus of a language course should not be organized around grammar but around subject matter, tasks/projects, or semantic notions and/or pragmatic functions. In other words, language instruction should be content-based, meaningful, contextualized, and discourse-based (rather than sentence-based).” (Celce-Murcia, 1991, p. 462)

Madya (2008, p. 14) further remarked that the 1984 curriculum could be classified as a weak functional type. The English teaching schedule for junior and senior levels was 45 minutes per week with 136 allotted times each year. At the end of their senior high school, students had already studied for 808 contact hours or 606 real hours with 40-50 students per class (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). The recommendation then was to retrain teachers through *Pemantapan Kerja Guru* (PKG). This PKG led to the construction of the 1994 curriculum which was popularised as ‘the meaning-based approach’ with the six elements embedded in it (*Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan*, 1993) as cited in Madya (2008, p. 18).

“They are, (1) themes which are developed into instructional topics are considered as a more appropriate basis for arranging teaching materials into a lesson plan than linguistic elements, (2) linguistic elements of English such as grammar, vocabulary, spelling, and pronunciation are to be presented in linguistic and situational contexts so that their meanings are clear and the situational context includes both the students’ culture and the target culture, (3) the learning of the linguistic elements is aimed at supporting the mastery and development of the four English language skills rather than at mastering the elements themselves, (4) in the teaching and learning process, the linguistic elements estimated to be difficult for students can be taught systematically under the related theme, (5) in the teaching and learning process, the four language skills are basically inseparable, and therefore developed in integration with one another, though the emphasis remains with the reading skill, and (6) the students are to be involved in all meaningful learning activities such as developing students’ potentials in science, technology and art as well as social communication skills with strong character of Indonesian’s citizens.”

The significant change according to Madya was in the 1984 curriculum which was focused on three types of language activity: reading, dialogues, and writing. However, Dardjowidjojo (2000) claimed that though it was called communicative, the guidelines still showed very strong structural

(grammar) points and did not provide a clear explanation of pragmatics aspects in the teaching material; thus, textbooks were mostly misguided and misinterpreted. The pragmatic aspects were discussed in separate topics, not being incorporated into the four skills. The ministry realized that speaking was not the target of English language teaching; the order of the four skills of English then became reading, listening, speaking and writing.

English language syllabuses were merely a listing of the structures of the language to be taught and the order in which they were to be taught. The 1984 curriculum was changed from a single-focus on form to a twin-focus on form and use. Furthermore, the teaching items specification fell into two categories: forms (sound system/spelling, structure, vocabulary) and language use/activity (reading, speaking and listening, writing/composition) and literary appreciation (Nababan, 1991). For secondary schools, it was organized in the order of structure, reading, vocabulary, dialogues, writing, pronunciation and spelling, and motivational activities.

Due to the status of English as a foreign language, the ‘communicative teaching material’ remained very structural as can be seen in textbooks of the time (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). Nababan (1991) pointed out that communication or competence was hardly implemented. Teachers were mostly driven by textbooks (Supriadi, 2000) with the sentence based orientation (Nababan, 1991; Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Madya, 2008). Problems were compounded by teachers with poor English language proficiency (Hamied, 1997; Ridwan et al., 1996).

Additionally, Kasihani (2000) noted that in the 1994 curriculum the common approach used was the communicative approach adopted from the earlier 1984 curriculum (Kasihani, 2000). The communicative competence had been adopted; however, it was hardly implemented at all (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). This might have been happening because English is a foreign language not commonly used in daily Indonesian life. Students at school seemed to use more the vernacular or local language together with the low variety of Bahasa Indonesia. He further stated that the notion of the communicative approach was hardly implemented and teaching remained focused on cognitive knowledge of English without any communicative targets. Added to this, Madya (2008) contended that the 1975 curriculum was obviously structurally oriented. She noted,

“It is claimed to be communicative, however, the structural orientation is still very strong as implied in the statements of the structure-related instructional goals which emphasize the sentence level meaning. Besides, the components of each unit include structure, reading, vocabulary, conversation, writing, pronunciation, and spelling which are presented in a matrix format; hence, implying little flexibility.” (p. 14)

To strengthen the communicative orientation, the 1995 curriculum seemed to reflect such views. Madya (2008), as one of its designers, further noted that the 1994 curriculum emphasized the mastery of communicative skills through the implementation of a meaning-based approach.

“It contained (1) statements of objectives for the four language skills together with statements of the level of vocabulary and text types; (2) a list of compulsory themes together with examples of topics derived from them; (3) statements about language use and language elements, followed by a list of functional skills with each being accompanied by examples of communicative expressions; and (4) a list of words which are grouped according to the theme. To ensure the achievement, teachers are advised to be creative in implementing the curriculum.” (p. 19)

As pointed out by Mistar (2005) the 1995 curriculum with the Meaningfulness Approach was not successfully implemented due to teachers’ inadequacies. His suggestion was to improve English teachers’ professionalism in which the responsibility is in the hand of districts. In brief, the English language curriculum has been changed six times with different approaches; however, the result has always been low academic achievement in English. In 2010, for example, English together with Bahasa Indonesia achieved the lowest grade compared to mathematics and science in the national examination in Yogyakarta (personal interview of the district supervisor). Though the teaching of English has already begun at primary school (the 1994 curriculum), English remains ‘a monster’ for junior and senior high school students, particularly its testing in the national examination, as we shall see.

## **1.6 The Current Indonesian English Language Curriculum: Its Genesis**

Teaching English nowadays has become a major issue in many countries of the world, including Indonesia. English is taught at primary level as optional local content, and as a compulsory subject beginning in junior high school up to university level as mandated in the national Indonesian educational system. At primary level, since the implementation of the 1994 curriculum, almost all primary schools in 10 provinces across Indonesia chose English as a compulsory local content subject (Kasihani, 2000; Coleman and Pudjiastuti, 1995). Kasihani also noted that 61.6 per cent of junior high school students had already learnt English in primary school.

In junior high schools, English has the same number of teaching hours, 4 hours at least per week as the other core subjects – Bahasa Indonesia, mathematics and science. This suggests that English has achieved prominence in Indonesian education. In senior high schools, English is also taught four hours per week. Some junior and senior high schools have offered additional English classes after school hours especially in Years 9 and 12 to prepare students for the national examination.

Under the MONE through its Directorate of Development for Junior Secondary Education (DDJSE), the teaching of English is positively encouraged by the Indonesian government aiming at

facilitating learners to acquire English. One initiative of the government has been to review and then to change the curriculum. The 2004 (Competency-based Curriculum) or *Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi* (KBK) outlined four important components: linguistic competence, sociocultural competence, discourse competence and strategic competence as coined by Hymes (1972) and Halliday (1973), and taken up by Celce-Murcia et al. (1995), Richards & Rodgers (2001).

The notion of the literacy approach targeted students' competence to produce texts. Within two years of implementation, the 2006 curriculum was introduced as the 'perfect revision' of the competency-based curriculum that was developed by schools based on school and students' characteristics. So, the standard competence and basic competence are stipulated by the government and schools need to annually develop teaching aims or learning objectives according to characteristics of both schools and students. Such development was to accommodate local or district potential resources and needs which should, however, be in line with the national education system. This curriculum is aimed at providing school graduates with the requisite skills in the sense that they are expected to achieve the competence required to communicate effectively.

In terms of implementation of the new curriculum and based on the preliminary research conducted by the researcher, the teaching and learning of English has become unsatisfactory notwithstanding the increasing internationalization of English. Some factors might be influencing this lack of success. There are, for instance, many teachers using outdated methods and having very little training in English teaching; many teachers are not trained in English teaching methodology; there is a lack of quality materials and classes are too large. In response to this, the regional government (province and district) implemented various strategies to improve teachers' competence. On the other hand, many schools and institutions provide language laboratories as a major teaching aid to improve both teachers' and students' competence; thus, computers now are a common teaching and learning resource. Teachers are being required to deploy the new technologies to improve their own proficiency as well as that of their students.

### **1.7 Research Questions and Research Objectives**

This research is aimed at evaluating English language teaching and learning at junior high school level in grades seven and eight through the KTSP curriculum in Yogyakarta special territory. It was to evaluate the implementation of the curriculum (KTSP) which was first introduced in 2006.

### **1.7.1 Research Questions**

This evaluation research was focused on the English language component of the KTSP curriculum. The basic research question was formulated as follows:

**How well have the English language policies and programs of the Indonesian government been implemented in the junior high schools of Yogyakarta since the introduction of the KTSP in 2006?**

### **1.7.2 Objectives of the Study**

The research question is supported by five objectives:

- (1) to describe the evolution of the teaching of English in Indonesian schools since independence in 1945,
- (2) to describe the English language curriculum recently introduced into Indonesian schools and its implementation,
- (3) to ascertain the perceptions of the implementation of the KTSP from the perspective of the various stakeholders: (i) provincial and district education boards and their English curriculum officials, (ii) school principals and their staff (iii) English language teachers and their association, and (iv) students,
- (4) to ascertain the positive and negative classroom experiences of the English language teachers in teaching the KTSP including resources, and media, particularly the use of computer assisted language learning techniques and
- (5) to determine the students' level of English proficiency based on national examination results and what impact they have on the teaching and learning process.

Based on the findings of the evaluation, this study is expected to improve the quality of teaching English in Indonesia by developing teachers' competences that would be implemented in class as well as informing policy and program initiatives at national, provincial and district levels. This research can make theoretical and practical contributions for all parties involved in education, particularly academics, curriculum developers and English teachers, and also can be a reference for further research in the area of English language education, particularly in the context of Indonesia.

## **1.8 Limitations of the Study**

The 2006 curriculum (KTSP) covers all compulsory subjects. The limitations of the study refer to the evaluation of the implementation of English language teaching programs and the twelve case study schools in the Yogyakarta province. The central focus of this thesis was on English language teaching which is one element of the KTSP curriculum. This evaluation research evaluated the implementation of the KTSP curriculum from the various perspectives of stakeholders, in particular English language teaching in five districts in the Yogyakarta province representing government and private schools under MONE (420 schools) and MORA (85 schools) – ten schools under MONE management and two schools with MORA: six were government and six private schools. The location of the schools also varied – two schools in the city, five urban schools and five rural schools. This random sampling done by the researcher represented the overall profile of junior high schools in the Yogyakarta province and could have generalizability of schools in Indonesia.

## **1.9 Research Framework**

Scholars discuss curriculum both in broader and specific perspectives. Plat and Weber in Richards (2001) define curriculum as an educational program which states (a) the educational purpose of the program, (b) the content, the teaching procedures and the learning experiences which will be necessary to achieve this purpose, and (c) some means for assessing whether or not the educational ends have been achieved. This definition implies a broader concept of curriculum and it is dynamic in terms of its planning and implementation. This developing curriculum focuses on processes regarding needs analysis, situational analysis, planning learning outcomes, course organization, selecting and preparing teaching materials, effective teaching and evaluation. In contrast, Rodgers (1989) specifically identifies curriculum as activities in which children engage and cover what they learn, how they learn, how teachers help through supporting materials, styles and methods of assessment, and what kinds of facilities. Similarly, Brown (2000) outlines that curriculum is the design to carry out a particular language program, including subject-matter objectives, sequencing and materials to meet the needs of a designated group of learners in a defined context. It reveals important components that guide teachers to perform what and how to teach, including assessment for each subject-matter. Carter and Nunan (2001) identified how the curriculum consists of the aims, content, methodology and evaluation procedures of a particular subject or subjects taught in a particular institution or school system.

The term curriculum cannot be separated from syllabus and lesson plan as more specific parts of the curriculum in schools. Breen (2001) noted that the syllabus is what will be worked upon to achieve overall aims. Similarly Richards (2001) identified syllabus as a specification of the content



of instruction and lists what to teach and test. In this study, the term of curriculum and syllabus will be used interchangeably in which the English language policy and programs of the English language teaching will be thoroughly evaluated from the different perspectives of stakeholders.

According to Schwandt (2000, p. 198), curriculum is constructed through social perspectives based on individuals' experiences together with ideological, political and culture interests. Also, Goodson (1994, p. 19) clearly states that,

The school curriculum is a social artifact, conceived and made for deliberate human purposes. It is therefore a supreme paradox that in many accounts of schooling the written curriculum, this most manifest of social constructions, has been treated as a 'given'.

The assumption of social artifact means that the construction of the curriculum documentation can reflect the external factors in which it is constructed; thus, a curriculum is not merely 'documentation', but it reveals how ideology, politics and social changes underpin curriculum construction (Schwandt, 2000).

Marsh (2004) noted that 'the word curriculum has been used historically to describe the subjects taught during the classical period of Greek civilization'; but now, the curriculum refers to any and all subjects offered or prescribed as 'the curriculum of the school' including school documents, newspaper articles, committee reports, and academic textbooks. In this research the curriculum refers to the KTSP curriculum or the 2006 curriculum which is equated with the subject taught, in particular the English language curriculum.

In the Indonesian context, as the Government Regulation No. 19/2005 stipulates, the curriculum is about plans, programs and rules regarding the objectives, content, methods and the teaching and learning materials that serve as a guideline to conduct instructional activities in order to achieve the national education standard. In Article 20, the government highlighted that the curriculum includes syllabus and lesson plan which consists of the aims of learning, teaching materials, methods, learning sources and assessment. The KTSP curriculum launched in 2006 consists of 10 required subjects and local content subjects. English is one of the core subjects examined in the national examination together with Bahasa Indonesia, mathematics and science.

The 2006 curriculum is as a 'negotiated curriculum' that has been discussed with different parties, such as parents, practitioners from different areas of work, and schools themselves. This study is to see the implementation of the English language program or English language curriculum by triangulating the school curriculum documentation, survey schedule including interview and focus



group discussion, as well as school and class observation. Having three different sources enriched the data, so the evaluation was based on very significant data sources.

### **1.10 The Structure of the Thesis**

The subsequent chapters will be framed as follows, Chapter 2 elaborates the notions of curriculum change and renewal, communicative language teaching, teacher competence as well as the KTSP curriculum and students' motivation. Chapter 3 discusses the research strategy employed in this curriculum evaluation including the subject participants and case study methodology. Chapter 4 begins with the findings regarding the perspective of curriculum designers, academics, provincial and district supervisors. The discussion concerning the role and perspective of principals will be comprehensively outlined in the fifth chapter. Chapter 6 will focus on English language teachers' perspectives while Chapter 7 deals with teachers' competence, and the view on competency-based curriculum and school-based curriculum. Learning facilities and language teaching materials will be described in Chapter 8. Students' perceptions as the most important target in the curriculum implementation will be discussed in the ninth Chapter while the discussion of the key findings together with recommendations will be outlined in Chapter 10.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **COMMUNICATIVE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING AND THE CURRICULUM**

With the rapid emergence of English as a lingua franca, English language teaching and learning has been a common source of debate amongst second language researchers all over the world. The rise of various approaches, methods and techniques of second language learning reflects this growing recognition. Such overviews emphasize various issues such as approach or method that matches with the condition of the country, whether the teaching of English is as the first language, second language, associate language, foreign language or additional language.

Talking about English language teaching and learning requires us to consider to the relationship between theory and practice. Anthony (1963), as cited in Richards and Rodgers (2001), identifies three levels of conceptualization in teaching and learning which he terms approach, method and technique. The following is the definition of such terms:

“An approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is axiomatic. Method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach. A method is procedural. A technique is implementational – that which actually takes place in a classroom. It is a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques must be consistent with a method, and therefore in harmony with an approach as well.” (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 19)

The following sections will review the existing literature about communicative language teaching (CLT) in regard to English as a global language as well as teachers’ role as one of the key factors in response to the implementation of CLT. Students’ motivation as an individual factor that plays a key role in learning will be outlined and followed by the description of the KTSP curriculum.

#### **2.1 Communicative Language Teaching: An Overview**

The techniques for second language teaching has been long debated by scholars before the communicative approach, arguing over the best approach for teaching the English language. The audiolingual approach after the 1950s was eventually changed to the communicative approach which at that time resulted from theoretical linguistics. Richards (2001, p. 3) noted the chronology of the best methods in greatest dominance:

- Grammar Translation Method (1800-1900)
- Direct Method (1890-1930)
- Structural Method (1930-1960)
- Reading Method (1920-1950)
- Audiolingual Method (1950-1970)
- Situational Method (1950-1970)
- Communicative Approach (1970-present)

English language teaching previously was seen as a set of rules which refers to the Chomskyan concept of linguistic competence. It emphasized the syntactic, lexical, morphological and phonological features of English language. It minimized vocabulary development and semantics. However, in the mid-1970s, an anthropologist linguist from US (Hymes, 1972) and a functional linguist from Britain (Halliday, 1973) began to view language as a tool of communication. Widdowson (1978) and Wilkins (1976) put forward the notion of communicative approach in language teaching of both second and foreign language contexts. Savignon (1991, 2002) noted that CLT was first targeted to a group of immigrants and guest workers regarding the integration of language, communication, and culture. This influential approach put content, meaning, context and discourse into the language teaching. Phillipson (2009) points out the goal of English language education is communicative competence in English.

“A focus on communication skills may well entail the dissemination of American ways of speaking and forms of communication, genre, and style of the dominant consumerist culture, which globalization is extending worldwide.” (Phillipson, 2009, p. 5)

Richards and Rodgers (2001) identify the communicative language teaching (CLT) as developing a communicative syllabus aiming at understanding and expressing the language rather than through grammar and vocabulary. They further outlined the Notional Syllabus or the Notional-Functional Approach or Functional Approach based on needs assessment (Savignon, 1991, 2002). This became a significant shift from the previous approach which emphasized grammar (form), whereas communicative language teaching emphasizes meaning. Nunan (1991) characterized CLT in the following features:

- (1) An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language,
  - (2) The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation,
  - (3) The provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language, but also on the learning process itself,
  - (4) An enhancement of the learner's own personal experience as important contributing elements to classroom learning,
  - (5) An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activation outside of the classroom.
- (Nunan, 1991, p. 279)

The goal of this CLT approach is to use the language as a means of communication. Nunan (1991) and Richards and Rodgers (2001) pointed out that CLT evolved in the inner circle. Its teaching and learning stresses interaction, conversation and language use rather than about the language – grammar, vocabulary and phonetics; in other words, it develops the communicative competence that means the language is being learned for social interactions. Many scholars have defined communicative competence as the ability to use a language for communication purposes. Canale and Swain (1980) had asserted that communicative competence covers four components: (1) grammatical or linguistic competence refers to the ability to apply the rules of grammar to produce a message correctly, (2) discourse competence means the ability to put words and structures clearly

and effectively to achieve the intended message of the speaker/writer, (3) sociolinguistic competence refers to the choice of language usage according to the social situation such as time, place and social relationship, and (4) strategic competence is the ability to compensate for any weaknesses the speaker has in the previous areas. Celce-Murcia and Thurrell (1995) added actional competence as the ability to understand communicative intent based on ‘the knowledge of an inventory of verbal schemata that carry illocutionary force (speech acts and speech act sets)’ (ibid, p. 17). Richards (2006) further noted aspects of language knowledge in communicative competence:

“Knowing how to use language for a range of different purposes and functions, knowing how to vary our use of language according to the setting and the participants (e.g., knowing when to use formal and informal speech or when to use language appropriately for written as opposed to spoken communication), knowing how to produce and understand different types of texts (e.g., narratives, reports, interviews, conversations) and knowing how to maintain communication despite having limitations in one’s language knowledge (e.g., through using different kinds of communication strategies.” (Richards, 2006, p. 3)

Nunan (2004, p. 10) asserts that ‘CLT has had a profound effect on methodology and syllabus design that greatly enhanced the status of the concept of ‘task’ within the curriculum.’ The learning activities according to Littlewood (1981, p. 89) are divided into pre-communicative activity and in-communicative activity. The former is to give learners fluent control over linguistic forms to achieve acceptable language while the latter refers to the production of linguistic forms which relate to meanings. The activities encourage learners to focus on (a) linguistic forms to be practiced, or (b) meanings to be conveyed.

The CLT based on the work of these and other scholars seemed to be implemented in the context of the inner circle focusing on learners’ communicative needs in which English is dominantly used in daily life with the following principles, (1) learners learn a language through using it to communicate, (2) authentic and meaningful communication should be the goal of classroom activities, (3) fluency is an important dimension of communication, (4) communication involves the integration of different language skills, and (5) learning is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error (Rodgers, 1989). Similarly, Berns (1990) proposes eight principles of CLT:

- (1) Language teaching is based on a view of language as communication. That is, language is seen as a social tool that speakers use to make meaning; speakers communicate about something to someone for some purpose, either orally or in writing,
- (2) Diversity is recognized and accepted as part of language development and use in second language learners and users, as it is with first language users,
- (3) A learner’s competence is considered in relative, not in absolute terms,
- (4) More than one variety of a language is recognized as a viable model for learning and teaching,

- (5) Culture is recognized as instrumental in shaping speakers' communicative competence, in both their first and subsequent languages,
- (6) No single methodology or fixed set of techniques is prescribed,
- (7) Language use is recognized as serving ideational, interpersonal, and textual functions and is related to the development of learners' competence in each,
- (8) It is essential that learners be engaged in doing things with language – that is, that they use language for a variety of purposes in all phases of learning. (p. 104)

CLT in Hymes' perspective is focused on language as social behavior, not language learning. The subsequent interpretation of Hymes's views for learners according to Savignon (2002), is duplicated to classrooms of non-natives. However, Paulston (1974) as cited in Savignon (1991) questioned the appropriateness of communicative competence as an instructional goal for non-native speakers.

According to McKay (2003), English has achieved the status as international language and this has impacted upon the nature of the language. Also, McKay pinpointed that CLT has been defined according to various assumptions and some of them did not match up with teaching English in foreign language contexts, particularly in terms of English language model (native-like standard), the teaching materials and cultural appropriateness. Added to this, Alptekin (2002, p. 57) notes that CLT is found to be 'utopian, unrealistic, and constraining in relation to English as an international language'.

Littlewood (1981, p. 89) points out the goal of English Language Teaching (ELT) in countries categorized in the expanding circle is to 'extend the range of communication situations in which the learner can perform with focus on meaning, without being hindered by the attention he must pay to linguistic form'. Error correction of students for some teachers then becomes problematic. Littlewood (1981) maintains,

To many teachers, this might appear to conflict with their pedagogical role, which has traditionally required them to evaluate all learners' performance according to clearly defined criteria. Certainly, it suggests that a communicative approach involves the teacher in redefining, to some extent, this traditional role (p. 91).

Providing a 'world' model of English for people speaking English as a second and foreign language is also being challenged whether it is US English or British English as the model. McKay (2002) defines standard English as the variety of English that is generally used in the printed media and carries the most prestige whereas some contend that standard English can be spoken with any accent.

Furthermore, Graddol (2006) points out that the terms ‘native speaker’ and ‘foreign language speaker’ should be redefined in terms of English competence. He explores the decline of native speakers from three different perspectives:

(1) the proportion of the world’s population speaking English as a first language is declining, (2) the international status of English is changing in profound ways: in future it will be a language used mainly in multilingual contexts as a second language and for communication between non-native speakers, and (3) in terms of a changing ideological discourse about languages, linguistic competence, and identity (Graddol, 1999, p. 57).

Kachru (1985) added that having a variety of norms would not lead to a lack of intelligibility among varieties of English. There even could be an ‘educated variety’. Kachru (1996) highlighted that English becomes a tool for non-native speakers. He further argues that ‘native speakers of English seem to have lost the exclusive prerogative to control its standardization: in fact, if current statistics are any indication, they have become a minority’ (Kachru, 1985, p. 30).

The notion of English in the expanding circle brings about the notion of grammatical rules and the lexical forms of English teaching materials which are now more varied but not for varieties for language teaching (McKay, 2012, p. 73). Kachru (1992) further distinguished standards into (1) norm-providing (describing speech communities that provide language norms for other speech communities – inner circle countries), norm-developing (describing speech communities that develop their own language norms through daily use of the language and codification – outer circle countries) and (3) norm-dependent (describing speech communities that look to other speech communities for their language norms – expanding circle countries). Kramsch (1998) outlined the notion of ‘cultural appropriation’ that allows language learners to adopt and adapt both English language and culture to their needs and interests. In a similar vein, McKay (2012) added that the central goal of teaching English is the ‘awareness of the diversity of English use today so that speakers are better prepared to deal with English interactions in international contexts’. Also, Canagarajah (1999, p. 90-91) argued that teaching English in periphery communities should be passed on to the local teachers in a ‘socially responsible and politically empowering manner’. McKay’s assertion (2003, p. 40) is:

“Given the diversity of local cultures of learning, it is unrealistic to imagine that one method, such as CLT, will meet the needs of all learners. Rather, local teachers must be given the right and the responsibility to employ methods that are culturally sensitive and productive in their students of learning English.”

Richards (2009) in his reflection of 30 years of TEFL/TESL concludes some points regarding teaching English nowadays. He points out that (1) English is as a world commodity, (2) English learning not necessarily linked to US or British cultural values, (3) English teaching is linked to national values, (4) mother-tongue influenced accent is acceptable as well as native-speaker accent

and (5) comprehensibility is the target. He further remarks that second and foreign language teachers should consider innovations such as multiple intelligences, cooperative learning, task-based instruction, and alternative assessment. In summary, the teaching of English in this globalization drives teachers to be more critical and creative in designing teaching materials that are in line with the characteristics of students.

### **2.1.1 Cultural Content of CLT**

Regarding cultural content to learn, ‘Big C’ and ‘little c’ refers to multifaceted components of culture (Hinkel, 2001; DeCapua and Wintergerst, 2004). The former refers to visible aspects such as style of dress, cuisine, customs, festivals and traditions, institutionalized aspects of culture (social, political, economic, educational, religious, etc), geographical monuments, historical events, sciences, and artistic products. The latter refers to invisible aspects involving people’s sociocultural norms, world-views, and cultural value systems. Alptekin (2002) said that it became necessary to integrate the linguistic code with a small ‘c’ concept of culture which refers to daily customs and ways of life, and mainstream ways of thinking and behaving.

Thanasoulas (2001) points that language teaching is culture teaching, so someone who deals with teaching language is also involved in teaching culture at the same time. Hymes (1972) emphasizes that the CLT needs more than grammatical competence to communicate effectively in a language. It has mainly two aspects: linguistic and pragmatic competences. Cultural competence is categorized into the pragmatic aspect of communicative competence, that is, the ability to understand behaviour of the members of a culture, and behave in a way that would be understood by members of the culture. Thus, it involves understanding all aspects of a culture.

As Hammond et al. (1992) pointed out, language is one of the products of culture and every culture produces genres or text types. According to Mickan (2013), texts are cultural artefacts that make sense. Agustien (2005) further noted that English culture produces texts such as narration, description, recount, anecdote, transactional conversation and short functional texts. In Bahasa Indonesia and Javanese, there is also narration but this does not mean that the two narrative texts from the different cultures shared the same characteristics. Each has its own linguistic features and purpose, and the educational goal (competency standard) is to enable the learners to receptively and productively participate in various possible communicative events as genres (text types).

As outlined by Kachru (1998) with his notion of inner, outer and expanding circles, the link between English language and culture becomes debatable among scholars. One of the key issues regards which ‘culture’ be taught in second and foreign language contexts in terms of the cultural

content of teaching materials because language learning can promote also cultural identities (Li, 2012; Tsui & Tolleson, 2007). Cortazzi and Jin (1999, p. 204-5) put forward the three types of cultural information included in textbooks and teaching materials – source culture materials, target culture materials and international target culture materials. The first refers to the learners' own culture, the second deals with first language culture and the last belongs to the great variety of cultures in English-and non-English speaking countries around the world.

As already stated by Nunan (1991) that one of the features in CLT is 'the introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation', it has implications for materials development. The notion of authentic teaching materials should be considered to promote language learning. McKay (2012, p. 80) defined that 'authentic language learning texts are not those that served a non-pedagogic purpose with another community of users but rather those texts that particular groups engage with and create discourse around for the purpose of furthering their language learning. She outlined the key principles for materials development in English as an international language (EIL):

- (1) Be relevant to the domains in which English is used in the particular learning contexts,
- (2) Include examples of the diversity of English varieties used today,
- (3) Need to exemplify L2-L2 interactions,
- (4) Full recognition needs to be given to other languages spoken by English speakers
- (5) Should be taught in a way that respects the local culture of learning.

Similarly, Widdowson (1994, 1998) highlights the importance of appropriate language material. He noted that it is important for language learners to activate local knowledge in order to engage with the language cognitively, affectively as well as personally. For language to be authentic in its pragmatic function, it needs to be localized within a particular community. It is believed that the more the language is localized for the learners, the more learners engage in the discourse (Widdowson, 1998). Furthermore, learners need to understand culture-specific modes of interaction and speech acts due to various cultural aspects of English language. Hinkel (2001) notes the importance for learners to understand which expression is acceptable, appropriate and expected in one's behaviour. Thus, the grammatical constructions of a speech act and how it is used should be taught. Such social contexts or cultural values might be also found in the textbooks that needed to be discussed. As suggested by Widdowson (1998) and Alptekin (2002), instructional materials and activities should be suitable discourse samples between native and nonnative speaker interactions as well as nonnative and nonnative speaker interactions and should involve local and international contexts that are familiar and relevant to language learners' lives.

In light of instructional teaching materials, teachers are key factors to successfully implement the teaching of English as an international language (McKay, 2003). They know the students' language level and interests and understand the role of English in the students' lives, communities and future



needs. Teachers, thus, need to design the teaching materials that can meaningfully engage with a text or with other learners. Teachers can also design their teaching materials because they have the best position.

Concerning cultural appropriateness covered in teaching materials, scholars have analyzed textbooks provided by governments. In Japan, many textbooks approved by official government bodies promoted Western characters and values (Matsuda, 2002). In contrast, Munandar and Ulwiyah (2012) found the textbooks for Indonesian high school students in grade 10, 11 and 12 written by Indonesian authors and which claimed to comply with the 2006 content standard of English showed an extensive use of local references that help learners adopt the language and adapt it to the context of their language learning. To conclude, culture in this section refers to what would be taught in the form of text types and cultural appropriateness in the teaching materials.

### **2.1.2 Teacher Role in the Communicative Approach**

Regarding teachers' roles in communicative language teaching, Breen and Candlin (1980) as cited in Richards and Rogers (2001) contend that teachers have two main roles, as facilitator and independent participant such as organiser of resources and as a resource themselves, a guide in activities, and as a researcher and learner. Ur (2002) adds that English teachers should be professional in the sense of (1) interacting with the community for the sake of learning, (2) actively participating in seminars, national or international conferences, journals or books, (3) committing toward learners and their learning, (4) learning continually, (5) maintaining professional standards, and (6) responsible for training new teachers through school, college or university-based courses.

Renandya (2012) categorizes roles of teachers in two: (1) traditional (older paradigm) role which is based on general educational principles or second language teaching principles and (2) a critical thinking in assessing the principles and practices of English as an international language.

The first category (traditional role) refers to teachers' role as a motivator, needs analyst, materials developer, monitor and assessor of students' learning, controller, prompter, participant and as a resource. Another older paradigm of teachers' role is based on the assumptions of ELT pedagogy known as communicative language teaching, such as an ambassador of the inner-circle, model of the native-speaker variety of English, user of western-based teaching methodology and promoter of English-only classrooms. McKay (2003) describes the dominant ELT pedagogy as follows:

- (1) ELT research and pedagogy should be informed by native speaker model,
- (2) The cultural content for ELT should be derived from the cultures of native English speakers,
- (3) The culture of learning that informs CLT provides the most productive method for ELT.

Those assumptions, known as native-speakerism, is characterized by the belief that native speakers are the ideal ones to be the model of English language as well as of English language teaching (Holliday, 2006). This ideology is still widespread in the world although it is being challenged by the notion of English as lingua franca (Renandya, 2012). He further noted that many teachers believe that ‘their responsibilities are to help learners to achieve native-like fluency and acquire in-depth knowledge of the socio-cultural conventions and norms of the native English speaking communities (ibid, p. 69).

The teachers’ roles are to be native language model, representative of native English speaking cultures, and roles reflecting the CLT approach. These roles may result in a mismatch between their pedagogical practices and the learning goals of learners. Even though CLT is best implemented in the inner and outer circles, teachers in the expanding circle can also adopt CLT principles by encouraging interactional activities, and independent and group-based learning. In relation to the employment of CLT, scholars propose various learning types (Brown, 1994; Savignon, 2002, p. 22; Richards, 2009). They include (1) interactive learning, (2) learner-centered learning, (3) cooperative learning, (4) content-based learning, and (5) task-based learning. *Interactive learning* gives an emphasis on the dual roles of ‘receiver’ and ‘sender’ in any communicative situation. The interaction generates the meaning negotiation between interlocutors which in turn produces meaning (semantics). The essence of interactive learning activities entails that there will be a lot of pair and group work in the classroom, as well as authentic language input from the ‘real world’ for meaningful communication purposes.

The type of *learner-centered learning* provides second language learners with a lot of opportunities to deal with the language learning process. It does not mean that learners are dominantly given many chances to answer the questions, but the establishment of language advancement and communication practices is highly prioritized in the process of English teaching and learning, allowing students to develop their personal creativity and input, as well as to obtain their learning needs and objectives. *Cooperative learning* deals with group work that accentuates *cooperation* as opposed to *competition*. In this type of learning, students share information and language assistance and gain their learning objectives as a group. *Content-based learning* drives students to take part in language learning to content/subject matter and engages them both concurrently. In this matter, language is viewed as a device or medium for acquiring knowledge about other things. A significant factor in this kind of learning is that the content itself initiates what language items need to be obtained, not the other way around. For example, when students study an accounting subject using English as the medium, they are more intrinsically motivated to learn more of the language. *Task-based learning* is concerned with the idea of a ‘learning task’ to a language learning technique in itself. A problem solving activity or a project can be promoted but the employed task

should have a clear objective, appropriate content, a working/application procedure, and a set range of outcomes.

The second category regarding teachers' role is those who view English as an international and reflect EIL principles. McKay (2012) discusses the principles of teaching English as international language, such as:

- (1) The promotion of intercultural, rather than native-speaker, competence,
- (2) The promotion of an awareness of other varieties of English,
- (3) The promotion of multilingualism in the classroom,
- (4) The promotion of instructional materials that include both local and international cultures, and
- (5) The promotion of socially and culturally sensitive teaching methodology.

Based on those principles, Renandya (2012) outlines the role of the teacher that supports the application of EIL principles. They are:

- (1) Promoting intercultural learning
- (2) Awareness of other varieties of English
- (3) Multilingualism in the classroom
- (4) Instructional materials
- (5) Socially and culturally appropriate teaching methodology

He further points out that teachers now should be on the role of critical users of teaching methodology. McKay (2003) and Kramsch and Sullivan (1996) asserted that in such diverse socio-cultural settings, teachers should be 'a socially and culturally appropriate teaching methodology'. The EIL pedagogy should be one of global appropriacy and local appropriation that prepare learners 'to be both global and local speakers of English' that make them feeling at home in both international and national cultures (Kramsch and Sullivan, 1996; Alptekin, 2002).

To understand the competences of Indonesian English teachers in Indonesia, Soepriyatna (2012) developed competence matrix for English language teachers in Indonesia based on the theories of Mulhauser (1958), Richards (1998) and Cross (2003). The competence dimensions cover three domain:

- (1) English language competence
  - a. Oral/written communication
  - b. Linguistic
  - c. Sociocultural
- (2) Content knowledge
  - a. Text types
  - b. Grammar points
- (3) Teaching skills
  - a. Lesson planning including objectives and material development
  - b. Teaching performance including management of learning, teaching techniques, learning style, learning strategies and qualities of engaging teacher

English language teachers in Indonesia need to have English proficiency both spoken and written. This competence is crucially performed since English is a part of the school curriculum and subject to contextual factors such as support from the principal and the local community, government policy, teacher's language proficiency, teaching resources, the availability of suitable materials and national curriculum goals. Thus, teachers are the model for most students, particularly students living in rural areas. The content knowledge is also an important competence because the target of the curriculum is the intended communicative competence that mostly relates to speech functions in spoken and rhetoric in the written language. Having English language competence and content knowledge will not be sufficient for English language teachers because they need to be able to motivate students by engaging students in the teaching and learning. Soepriyatna (2012) noted that 'a competent English teacher is the one who can engage the students in the learning process.'

Each method has its own strengths and weaknesses, meaning that there is no superior method that must be applied in the process of teaching and learning. Richards and Rodgers (2001) assert that teachers need to be able to choose and be selective on the best strategy to apply. They need to be dynamic in applying the 'standardized' and or 'acceptable' to students to learn. They clarified characteristics of creative English language teachers: (1) determine what their language learning principles, (2) select techniques from various 'methods', (3) adapt and experiment with those techniques, (4) employ various techniques in a variety of combinations, and (5) observe their learners closely and invite them into the process by eliciting their feedback on the range of techniques they use. In other words, scholars put forward teachers' various roles with sufficient professional and pedagogical aspects.

### **2.1.3 Issues around the Implementation of CLT**

CLT becomes problematic in the context of teaching English as a foreign language or in expanding circles. Jarvis and Atsilarat (2004) contend that the problems generated by implementing the communicative approach have varied. They could be the students' level of proficiency, the class size and the time allocated. Lai (1994) has outlined in particular problems happening in the classrooms of secondary schools in Hong Kong such as limited time to use the language and lack of student confidence to speak in English (self-esteem, language anxiety and lack of opportunities). Further noteworthy according to Lai (1994) was that students' perceptions of students' poor competence in English as well as teachers' attitude towards learners' performance became critically important. Zhang (2004) added that cultural barriers occurred in implementing CLT such as lacking in English use, English language proficiency of teachers in communication and the examination system focusing on grammar. 'Confucianism' of Chinese students in which that teachers are the central figure that must be honored whereas students' role in learning is as receptive learners

generally interfere in the implementation of CLT (Liao, 2004; Miller, 2000). In the United Arab Emirates, Deckert (2004) found that the failure of CLT is due to excessive teacher talk and the perceptions of teacher and student concerning effective English teaching. Further noteworthy was the work of Gahin and Myhill (2001) regarding the intrinsic and extrinsic aspects that contributed to the failure of CLT. The intrinsic aspect regards the cultural factors such as students' attitude and insufficient capacity of pedagogical performance and English language proficiency. The external aspects include low salary, lack of resources, large classes as well as 'pressure' from parents, principals and supervisors blocking teachers' creativity to implement an ideal CLT syllabus.

Nunan (2003) noted that Korean teachers have insufficient English proficiency, insufficient language teaching materials as well as inadequate assessment practices for CLT whereas Lee (2014) asserted that CLT Korean teachers are 'still very restricted to communication or speaking skill'. Kavanagh (2012) finds that CLT in Japan is difficult to execute due to sociocultural and educational factors within the Japanese English education system. 'Japanese English teachers will continue to interpret and mediate CLT to harmonize with the needs of the teaching context they are within and as such will continue the need for grammar based tuition for university entrance examinations (Kavanagh, 2012, p. 737). Sreehari (2012) contended that teachers in Saudi Arabia focused on developing subject knowledge and classroom activities and were dominated by teacher talking/lecturing and followed by students working individually.

In a similar vein, Li (1998) and Nishino and Watanabe (2008) remarked how the failure of CLT in South Korea and Japan was in four domains, teacher, student, educational system and the construct of CLT itself. Teachers had misconceptions or lack of competence regarding CLT, particularly their English language proficiency. Students had little motivation to learn English or to develop their communicative activities. Problems also arise due to the education system such as having large classes (40-50 students) and a reliance on grammar-based examinations that leads teachers and students to continue traditional and non-communicative classroom methodologies.

To conclude the debates regarding the CLT implementation in class, Richards (1985) noted that there is no actual empirical evidence that communicative language classrooms produce better language learners than traditional class. Similarly, scholars such as Hu (2005), Nunan (2003) and Zhang and Hu (2010) find that the efforts to promote Western pedagogical practices showed limited success.

The notion of communicative competence is closely interrelated to the teaching of grammar even though language learning is not seen merely as a set of grammatical rules and vocabulary to memorize. It is seen as whole meaningful texts that can be conveyed to interlocutors or readers.

Scholars then argue whether explicit explanation on form would be necessary for teachers to explain. Long and Robinson (1998) claim a focus on form should be performed in terms of incidental activities in the communicative classroom. Similarly, Celce-Murcia (1991, p. 462) noted that ‘no one should dismiss grammar instruction’ in the teaching of English. She suggested teachers to consider some aspects in teaching grammar, learner and instructional variables. Learner variables deal with learning style, age, proficiency level and ‘educational background’ whereas instructional variables refer to ‘educational objectives’ (Celce-Murcia, 1991, p. 464). Additionally, Jarvis and Atsilarat (2004) point out the failure of the communicative competence in Bangladesh:

“The most problematic issue is a clear understanding and widespread endorsement of CLT and its effectiveness and on the other hand, a universal recognition of problems with implementation.”

CLT was born and first implemented in the context as the first language or inner and outer circles. Based on the researcher’s anecdotal notes and observation, CLT is not successfully taught in the context of foreign language teaching in Indonesia. Such failures might be due to the language context itself, the insufficient knowledge of teachers themselves, big classes, limited time allocations and inadequate learning materials. When teachers do not comprehend the philosophy of communicative language teaching, a complex sociolinguistic context (trilingual context) as well as the students’ need for the language might be problematic complications in the implementation. This is in line with the finding from Tipka (2004) summarizing that in the context of English as a foreign language in Indonesia, the hindrances are from various factors such as a lack of quality materials, no need to speak English outside the classroom and lack of parents’ involvement in students’ learning.

In terms of evaluative studies on CLT conducted in other EFL contexts, a curriculum evaluation was conducted in Oman done by a PhD student in Malaysia. Al-Jardani (2012), however, discusses issues on curriculum development and processes of curriculum evaluation in Oman. It does not talk about the implementation of CLT in Oman. In China, Wu (2001) noted that current challenges for English language teaching were English language planning, teacher education, materials, and assessment. She advised that China would need to ‘organize nationwide research teams in each of the sub-areas of study and to draw on international expertise’ (p. 194). Hu (2004, p. 43) contended, ‘the intensive top-down promotion of CLT notwithstanding, pedagogical practices in many Chinese classrooms have not changed fundamentally’. In Bangladesh, Hamid and Baldauf Jr (2008) concluded that teachers particularly in rural areas covered reading, writing and grammar in their teaching. They said, “Classroom practice was guided by their own beliefs and experiences of teaching and learning; CLT training had hardly had any impact on their classroom practice” (p. 18).

To conclude, the communicative approach was still argued by scholars particularly regarding the ‘status’ of the language – second or foreign language. Richards and Rogers (2001) suggest the end of twentieth century ‘post-methods era’ is used as the key factor for success or failure in language teaching. Teachers need to be able to select ‘approaches and methods flexibly and creatively based on their own judgment and experience’ and adapt the methods they use to make them their own (Richards and Rogers, 2001, p. 250). According to them, approaches and methods can be useful in the light of: (1) learning how to use different approaches and methods and understanding when they might be useful, (2) understanding some of the issues and controversies that characterize the history of language teaching, (3) participating in language learning experiences based on different approaches and methods as a basis for reflection and comparison, (4) being aware of the rich set of activity resources available to the imaginative teacher, and (5) appreciating how theory and practice can be linked from a variety of different perspectives. Teachers are motivators for students to learn and studies have shown the relationship between motivation and academic achievement.

#### **2.1.4 Student Motivation**

In terms of language learning, the motivation issue has been discussed by scholars in second/foreign language contexts. In second language contexts, for example, Gardner and Lambert (1972) distinguished between integrative and instrumental orientations in motivation. Orientation here is not similar to motivation but it represents reasons for learning the language. According to Gardner and Lambert (1972), integrative orientation aims at interacting with the language group or meeting different people; while instrumental orientation refers to external goals such as passing an examination, financial rewards or a better career. They further noted that integrative motivation is more powerful in second language achievement. Based on this fundamental finding, the distinction between two types of motivation was widely accepted and opened research studies regarding motivation.

Many scholars conducted research to support Gardner’s hypothesis (Svanes, 1987); while others put forward their own framework (Brown, 1981; R Clément, 1986). Oller and Perkins (1978) and Chihara and Oller (1978), on the other hand, said that language achievement has no relation to attitudes. Clément and Kruidenier (1983, p. 286) summarized there were four orientations that influenced language learning. They are the acquisition of knowledge, the desire to travel, instrumental reasons and the desire to seek new friendships. However, they noted that the construct validity of the integrative motivation was not supported in the research.

Deci (1975) put forward the notion of intrinsic and extrinsic motivated behaviour. Added to Deci (1975), Vallerand (1997) comments,



“Intrinsically motivated behaviours are aimed at bringing about certain internally rewarding consequences, namely feelings of competence and self determination. So people seem to engage in the activities for their own sake and not because they lead to an extrinsic reward such as money, prizes, grades and even certain types of positive feedback.” (page 164)

Both integrative and instrumental orientations (Gardner & Lambert, 1972) and intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Deci, 1975) have been used to explain the success or failure to fulfill any tasks in language learning. To respond to the criticism regarding integrative and instrumental orientation, Gardner (1985) defined motivation as the combination of (1) effort, (2) desire to achieve the goal of language learning, and (3) favourable attitudes towards language learning. Additionally, Margoret and Gardner (2003) developed the theory of motivation variables, (1) integrativeness (interest in foreign languages/attitude towards target language community, (2) attitudes toward the learning situation (context in which language is taught), (3) motivation (goal oriented behaviour), and orientations (instrumental and integrative). Similarly, Dörnyei (1990) points out that both instrumental motives and need for achievement can drive learners to be integratively motivated.

Dörnyei (1998) tried to relate social attitudes to classroom reality which challenged Gardner’s motivational model. Dörnyei (2005) and Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) proposed a new model of L2 motivational self-system consisting of three components. They are Ideal L2 Self, Ought-to L2, and L2 learning experience. Learners in Ideal L2 self are those who wish to be competent second language speakers as by mastering the language they have better jobs and/or a higher salary or they imagine that they can be a member of international English speaking communities. The Ought-to L2 learners are those who believe that they need to possess the language out of a sense of duty or a fear of punishment.

Furthermore, Dörnyei (1998) says that motivation determines human behaviour and gives direction to achieve it. He lists motivational components that are categorized into three main dimensions: the language level, the learner level and the learning situation level. Keller (1983) and Crookes and Schmidt (1991) particularly defined motivation into four dimensions, (1) intrinsic interest covering the learner’s personal needs, values or goals, (2) expectancy of success and satisfaction in the outcome of an activity and the associated intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, (3) teacher specific motivational components in relation to the teacher’s behaviour, and personality and teaching style, and including the affiliative motive to please the teacher, authority type (authoritarian or democratic teaching style) and direct socialisation of student motivation (modelling, task presentation, and feedback), and finally (4) group-specific motivational components related to the group dynamics of the learner group including goal-orientedness, the norm and rewards system and classroom goal structure (competitive, cooperative or individualistic). In his seminal book *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom*, Dörnyei wrote:



“...during the lengthy and often tedious process of mastering a foreign/second language (L2), the learner’s enthusiasm, commitment, and persistence are key determinants of success or failure.” (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 5)

Language learning cannot be separated from the socioeconomic and sociocultural milieu of which students are a part. This influences students’ motivation towards their learning both in second or foreign language contexts. In the foreign language context, Dörnyei (1998) contended that learners have little or no contact with members of the L2 group, so they could not involve their own attitudes with members of the target language group. However, this globalization era and English as a lingua franca bring learners to be involved in the ‘pragmatic’ situation. Ryan (2006) asserted that in the globalization era, it was difficult to distinguish between the learner and the user of language. Such situation creates ‘imagined communities’ of English language learners to become a global community, so it acts as motivation rather than their desire to integrate.

In the Indonesian context, students currently learn at least one second language. Williams and Burden (1997) contend that learning a foreign language is not simply learning the skills, rules or grammar; it involves self image, cultural behaviour and ways of being that impact on the social nature of the learner. In the junior high school context in Indonesia, students’ motivation could vary depending on students’ perceptions and intention of learning a foreign language. English, for example, is one of the compulsory subjects to be taught at all levels of education and is one of the core subjects to be examined in the national examination in Years Nine and Twelve. This becomes crucial - when the students do not achieve well in English for the national examination, then it is difficult for them to continue their further study to senior high school though the students’ grades are based on both the national examination (60 %) and the school examination (40 %).

## **2.2 The Competence-based Curriculum**

In Indonesia, due to the devolvement to the decentralized system to districts as well as the spirit of unity in diversity, democratization and autonomy, the education system of governance has also been ‘changed’. The previous curriculum employed a centralist approach in which teachers had little space to develop their own curricula. The Indonesian education system had been centralized over decades, with top down authority, failure over democratic rule, economic uncertainty and emphasis on the school obligation to support national integration. Indonesia is one of the most highly centralized nations in the world (Bjork, 2003, p. 193).

Through the 2003 Education Law, the curriculum so called *Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan* or KTSP (school-based curriculum) was introduced in 2006 which according to Madya (2008) should be developed based on (1) national education standard, (2) principles of diversifications, adjustment to the units of education, local potentials and learners’ characteristics, (3) curriculum

framework and structure determined by the government, (4) its relevancy to school or committee under the supervision of MONE or MORA at the district/city level for basic education, and at the provincial level for secondary education. She further said that the mandates are fulfilled in two related levels – the policy level (national unity) and the operational level (principles of regional autonomy and school based management).

In the Indonesian perspective, the KTSP curriculum is for all the subjects taught in schools, and the documentation is in two books – Book 1 is the curriculum and Book 2 is syllabus and lesson plans. As has been already mentioned in Chapter 1, the term of ‘curriculum’ refers to subject matters including English. The whole curriculum was the KTSP curriculum consisting of various subjects and English is one of them. It is a common thing to say the English language curriculum.

At the beginning of 2000s, the Indonesian curriculum had been trying to apply the competence-based curriculum which aimed to achieve students’ competence in enhancing communication in every level of education, such as elementary, junior high school and senior high school. This curriculum indicated a significant shift from teacher-centred teaching to learner-centred teaching; in other words, teachers’ roles had been changed from source of knowledge to be facilitator in teaching and learning.

Richards (2001) says that competences refer to the description of essential skills, knowledge, and attitudes required for effective performance of particular tasks and activities. Competency focuses on the outcome of learning rather than the means of learning. This kind of focus has recently reemerged in some parts of the world, like Australia. Competences are described in terms of:

- (1) Elements that break down the competency into smaller components and refer to the essential linguistic features involved,
  - (2) Performance criteria that specify the minimal performance required to achieve a competency,
  - (3) Range of variables that sets limits for the performance of the competency,
  - (4) Sample texts and assessment tasks that provide examples of texts and assessment tasks that relate to the competency.
- (Richards, 2001)

In addition, Schneck (1978) as cited in Richards (2001, p. 128) mentions characteristics of competency-based learning.

“Competence-based education has much in common with such approaches to learning as performance-based instruction, mastery learning and individualized instruction. It is outcome-based and is adaptive to the changing needs of students, teachers and the community.... Competencies differ from other student goals and objectives in that they describe the student’s ability to apply basic and other skills in situations that are commonly encountered in everyday life. Thus, CBE (Competence-based Education) is based on a set of outcomes that are derived from an analysis of tasks typically required of students in life role situations.”

This competence-based depends on needs of students, teachers and community and it focuses eventually on social survival and work-oriented language programs. The disadvantages underlying the competency-based approach is that because there is no way of knowing which ones are essential, then it is based on intuition and experience.

Competence and communicative competence has been expounded by Chomsky with the notion of language knowledge of an ideal speaker-hearer in a homogeneous community and Hymes emphasizing two aspects of communicative – linguistic and socio-cultural aspects of language. Scholars such as Dubin (1989) put forward the importance of sociocultural dimensions in the foreign language teaching in which the acquisition of linguistic competence is insufficient. Whatever the purpose of foreign language learning, it is to understand both cultural and social aspects of that community. In other words, language and language learning are not to be separated from the sociocultural practices of the target language (Roberts et al., 2001; Holliday et al., 2004; Nazari, 2007).

In the Indonesian context, the Curriculum Center (*Puskur*) outlines the characteristics of competency-based curriculum. They are to (1) achieve students' competences either individually and collectively (2) get learning outcomes and diversity, (3) teach through various methods and approach, (4) have various learning resources, and (5) assess students' outcomes through mastery or competence.

Government Regulation No. 19/2005 clearly stated that language education develops language competence with special emphasis on reading and writing according to the literacy level set for every level of education. The junior high school students are categorized into functional levels (Agustien, 2006) that targets (1) to get things done, and (2) for survival purposes (buying and selling, asking and giving permission, making and cancelling appointments, reading and writing simple texts, reading popular science, etc.). She further mentions that the ultimate goal is to participate in discourse or to communicate ideas, and feelings, in spoken and written English accurately, fluently and in an acceptable manner. Regarding the graduate standard for junior high school students, Agustien (2006) noted that each skill has its own competence:

(1) Listening

Students are able to understand transactional and interpersonal dialogues, short functional texts, and various genres (procedure, descriptive, recount, narrative and report) accurately.

(2) Speaking

Students are able to express various meanings in transactional and interpersonal dialogues, short functional texts, and various genres (procedure, descriptive, recount, narrative, and report) fluently and accurately.

(3) Reading

Students are able to understand short functional texts and various genres (procedure, descriptive, recount, narrative and report) accurately.

(4) Writing

Students are able to express meanings in various genres (procedure, descriptive, recount, narrative, and report) fluently and accurately.

As communicative competence is the target of teaching English in Indonesia with the special emphasis on reading and writing, junior high schools are required to learn standard competences and basic competences set by the government to achieve graduate competence standard. For junior high school, Madya (2008) summarizes the standards of competencies for junior high school students:

- (1) Understand meanings in inter-personal and transactional oral discourses, both formal and informal, in the form of recount, narrative, procedure, descriptive, and report, in simple daily life contexts,
- (2) Express meanings orally in simple interpersonal and transactional discourse, both formally and informally, in the form of recount, narrative, procedure, descriptive, and report, in the daily life contexts,
- (3) Understand meanings in simple written interpersonal and transactional discourse, both formally and informally, in the form of recount, narrative, procedure, descriptive, and report, in the daily life contexts, and
- (4) Express in written form meanings in simple interpersonal and transactional discourse, both formally and informally, in the form of recount, narrative, procedure, descriptive, and report, in the daily life contexts.

As outlined by Celce-Murcia et al. (1995), discourse competence was centred on achieving communicative competence together with linguistic, actional, sociocultural and strategic competences in the four language skills. The discourse competence is various texts such as transactional and interpersonal conversation, short functional text, descriptive, procedure, recount, narrative and report (Agustien, 2005). She further noted communicative competence in the 2004 curriculum,

“Since English is a language used as a means of international communication, the competence required for this level of communication needs to be clearly identified...when one starts to reflect each notion, one sometimes cannot help feeling frustrated because many things do not seem to make sense...it's due to a huge concept that tends to be taken for granted.” (p. 11)

Texts as the target of English language teaching depends on the context or situation (tenor, field and mode) and also are characterized by their communicative purpose, text structure and linguistic features (Hammond et al., 1992; Agustien, 2005). These features were embedded in the competency standards (*standar kompetensi*) and basic competence (*kompetensi dasar*) designed by the government. The syllabus given by the government covered basic competence, indicator, text type, an example of text, learning experience, allocated time and assessment. In the 2006 curriculum, teachers developed the indicators in accordance with student and school characteristics.

Character building and moral values were then introduced in 2010 and should be clearly written in lesson plans. This character building came up due to students' bad behaviour such as fighting among schools, disrespectful attitude of students to their teachers and many negative moral values.

### **2.3 Summary**

With the dominance of English as a global language, the teaching paradigm has been reevaluated from different perspectives. The world Englishes paradigm offers a heterogeneous perspective. The notion of communicative language teaching which first implemented as an approach in both inner and outer circles has been spreading in the expanding circle. The perspective of native-speakerism springs the ideals of both the English language and English language teaching models (McKay, 2003; Holliday, 2006). The preoccupation of native speaker models result in a mismatch among pedagogical practice, learning goals as well as the context of EIL (McKay, 2003; Renandya, 2012).

However, it seemed to be difficult to implement the CLT due to the nature of the language itself (as a foreign language) in multilingual contexts. The culture of teaching and learning as well as the inadequate capacity of teachers make the CLT even more difficult to be implemented. As Kramsch and Sullivan (1996) claim, cultural appropriateness needs to be considered in the English language teaching which implies teachers to be more appropriate in terms of both global appropriacy and local appropriation.

Teachers now have more challenges in selecting both teaching methodology and teaching materials. Richards and Rogers (2001) assert 'post methods era' for the teaching methodology and international target culture materials for their teaching. Richards (2009) further suggests contributions to successful language programs currently, such as (1) communicative approaches, (2) bottom-up approaches to teaching, (3) multimedia laboratory, (4) video and computers as learning resource, (5) learning occurs inside and outside the classroom and (6) focus on organizational system and processes.

In the Indonesian context, curriculum which changed as the logical consequences of the nation's development has happened many times with various approaches in accordance with the language teaching paradigm across the world. Due to the decentralized system, a significant shift occurred in the 2004 curriculum with the notion of communicative competence that had already been mentioned in the 1984 curriculum. However, the implementation of the communicative competence was difficult to realize even though the name has already been changed into the 2006 (KTSP) curriculum.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **RESEARCH STRATEGY AND DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES**

This chapter outlines the research strategy adopted for this study and determined by its key objective, namely, to evaluate English language teaching programs in junior high schools in the Yogyakarta province of Indonesia. The first section outlines the research methodology, including the evaluation research strategy adopted as well as an explanation of case study methodology. The second section describes the sampling strategy and the third deals with the profile of the research participants. Various instrumentations, including validity and reliability details will be described in the fourth, while the fifth section outlines the process of data collection followed by the sixth which will describe the experience of data collection. The seventh will focus on data analysis techniques and ethical issues will be described in the final section.

#### **3.1 Research Methodology**

The research methodology employed for this study was a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches (mixed method techniques) with various data sources. Qualitative research helps to achieve a deep understanding of research topics or phenomena (Wimmer & Dominick, 2006). Qualitative research, sometimes called ethnography, is based on two principles: natural setting and participant observation (Tuckman & Harper, 2012). Thus, this research relies on observation and interview data that discover patterns and meanings. The framework is evaluation research in which the researcher visited schools, interviewed people involved, collected documentation and made observations. Accordingly, Miles and Huberman (1994) noted that qualitative data are usually in the form of words rather than numbers and are commonly used by researchers both in basic disciplines and applied fields such as sociology, linguistics, urban planning, educational research, program evaluation and policy analysis. The qualitative data were obtained from classroom observation and the surrounding social context of the schools, interviews with the principals, English teachers and focus group discussions with the students and curriculum documentation.

The quantitative data gathering occurred with a small survey of principals concerning the implementation of the curriculum together with other surveys of selected English teachers and non-English teachers regarding their views of the 2006 KTSP curriculum, including their perceptions of the staff regarding curriculum implementation. Students' motivation in learning English was discussed as well. The results from the qualitative and quantitative data were compared or triangulated to see if the findings were similar. Both qualitative and quantitative data provide a comprehensive picture since they generalize the wider population under research and

simultaneously provide understanding and meaning of educational processes. Lodico et al. (2006) point out the advantages and disadvantages of this mixed-methods research:

“It combines the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative research, providing both an in-depth look at context, processes, and interactions and precise measurement of attitudes and outcomes. The researcher has flexibility in choosing methods of data collection, and the presentation of results can be convincing and powerful when both summary numbers and in-depth portraits of a setting are included. However, it requires knowledge and skills and it requires more time and resources to complete.” (page 282)

By having this kind of methodological integration, the researcher was able to identify and evaluate how well the KTSP curriculum has been implemented on the ground. Stakeholders’ perceptions regarding its implementation were triangulated with survey questionnaire, focus group discussions as well as documentations. In-depth analysis was employed to obtain more understanding of what change has led to and whether things are better or have stayed the same.

### **3.1.1 Evaluation Research Strategies**

Stufflebeam (1971) as cited in Kemmis and Stake (1988), defines evaluation as the process of delineating, obtaining, and providing useful information for judging decision alternatives with the purpose of providing relevant information to decision-makers. Gall et al. (2007) suggest that evaluation research is important to policy makers, program managers (school superintendents and university administrators) and curriculum developers (teachers and research and development specialists) as well as school board members (parents). Evaluation research is the systematic process of collecting and analyzing data about the quality, effectiveness, merit or value of programs, products or practices that are mainly focused on making decisions about them (Gay et al., 2009). It is a form of research, even though evaluation and research are more appropriately distinguished in terms of their purpose, outcome, value, impetus, conceptual basis and classical paradigms (see Table 3.1). Similarly, Kemmis and Stake (1988) assert research is concerned more with the nature than the worth of things, while evaluation deals with questions of worth or quality. In addition, Christie and Fierro (2010) have pointed out that evaluation questions are often elicited from program stakeholders and are decision-oriented to generate information for program improvement, whereas research questions are generated by researcher(s) and aim to understand phenomena and contribute to knowledge development. This study is an evaluation research aiming at examining policy, process as well as product of the English language program in the junior high schools in Yogyakarta.

**Table 3.1: Evaluation vs. Research**

	<b>Evaluation</b>	<b>Research</b>
<b>Purpose</b>	Examining a policy or a process or a product	Developing new knowledge
<b>Outcome</b>	Leading to specific decisions	Aiming at generalizable conclusions
<b>Value</b>	Focusing on value, worthwhileness and usefulness	Aiming at theories and models that have explanatory or predictive power
<b>Impetus</b>	Focusing on needs, aims, goals, objectives and processes	Motivated by ignorance, curiosity and serendipity
<b>Conceptual basis</b>	Focusing on means-ends processes	Focusing on causality and association
<b>Classical paradigm</b>	Having the systems approach and objectives approach	Interested in experimental correlational or content analysis
<b>Discipline</b>	Dealing with program planning and management	Dealing with control, manipulation or discovery of factors or variance
<b>Criteria</b>	Dealing with isomorphism and credibility	Is concerned with internal and external validity

Source: Gall et al. (2007)

In the Indonesian context, schools' curricula ought to be evaluated by principals and teachers in order to accord with the students' characteristics and school contexts. Kemmis and Stake (1988) suggest that a great deal of reported work is focused on the evaluation of curriculum development projects and educational reform programs introduced by governments and other agencies instead of on the living, working curriculum of schools and education systems. Moreover, writers see curriculum from the outside as a thing, rather than as the day-to-day work and 'lived experience' of teachers, students, school administrators, parents and others. Furthermore, Metfessel and Michael (1967) define evaluation as comparing measured performance with behavioural standards aimed at formulating recommendations that furnish a basis for further implementation, for modifications and for revisions in broad goals and specific objectives. In a similar vein, Christie and Fierro (2010) have noted that educational program evaluation is mostly concerned with the study of curriculum, programs and policies. Also, Genesee (2001) points out that the purpose of evaluation is accountability, that is, whether students learned according to the expected standards and/or the curriculum implementation worked the way it should have. This evaluation research strategy had never been previously done in the Yogyakarta province since the implementation of the 2006 curriculum. Twelve schools were randomly selected as the sites for this research.

Research as evaluation applies mixed methods techniques with the purpose to examine a policy or a process or a product (Cahill, 1984). This evaluation study was built around the strategy used by an RMIT University team in the mid-1980s to evaluate a national program, using fifty randomly selected primary and secondary schools in an Australia-wide study (Cahill, 1984) and in a subsequent study of fifteen schools (Cahill, 1996).

The research evaluation strategy employed by Cahill (1984, 1996) is deployed here to evaluate an implemented curriculum in junior high schools in Indonesia. This evaluation research of the 2006 curriculum would seem to be the first evaluation, particularly of the English language program that



was first implemented in 2006 (*liputan 6.com*, 2013). The main research question focused on the evaluation of the implementation of the KTSP curriculum on the ground. In this evaluation research, the primary purpose is to examine the implementation of an English language curriculum. As already mentioned, the research objectives were (1) to describe the post-World War II evolution of English language teaching and the English language curriculum, (2) to describe the English language curriculum recently introduced as well as its implementation, (3) to ascertain the perceptions of the implementation of the English language curriculum from the perspectives of various stakeholders (provincial and district education boards and academics, school principals and staff, English language teachers and their associations, and students), (4) to ascertain classroom experience, and (5) to assess the English proficiency level of the students.

### **3.1.2 Case Study Methodology**

As clarified by Yin (2009, p. 18), case study inquiry (1) copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be more that can be defined technically, that is, there will be many more variables of interest than data points, and, as one result, (2) relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulation fashion, and, as another result, (3) benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis. He also defines case study research as a research strategy with an all-encompassing method covering design, data collection techniques and specific approaches to data analysis which can be single or multiple case studies (Yin, 2009). Thomas (2011) outlines how case study method involves an in-depth, longitudinal (over a long period of time) examination of a single instance or event. Similarly, Gay et al. (2009) conclude there are four aspects in a case study, (1) a qualitative approach to studying a phenomenon; (2) focused on a unit of study, or a bounded system, (3) not a methodological choice, but a choice of what to study, and (4) an all-encompassing research method. Case studies refer to contemporary phenomena examined in depth within their real life context and the boundaries between the phenomenon and its context are not clearly evident. This kind of research defines the ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions that might be explanatory, exploratory or descriptive (Yin, 2009). Merriam (1998) similarly classified case study into three types – descriptive (narrative accounts), interpretative (developing conceptual categories inductively in order to examine initial assumptions), and evaluative (explaining and judging). Stake (1995) added that case studies are popular in educational research, particularly educational evaluation. Due to its complexity, case studies rely on multiple sources of evidence and can be based on any mix of quantitative and qualitative evidence.

The research is focused on the implementation of the English language curriculum in various schools in Yogyakarta. Triangulation of data analysis was deployed to the various case study

schools. Thus, the data analysis were based on the mix of quantitative and qualitative evidence (Stake, 1995). Case study research was chosen because the notion of decentralized governance would result in different curricula among schools in and across the districts.

### 3.2 Sampling Strategy

This research is to evaluate the implementation of the 2006 curriculum in the Yogyakarta province which covered four districts or counties – Sleman, Bantul, Kulonprogo, Gunungkidul, and one city or municipality, namely, Yogyakarta city. The sampling population for this research were junior high schools delivering formal education programs together with their staff and students. These schools come under the remit of either MONE or MORA.

As has been touched upon in the first chapter, MONE divides schools into three categories: (1) Potential Schools [schools which may be classified as Standard Formal School], (2) National Standard Schools (SSN – *Sekolah Standar Nasional*), and (3) Pilot Schools of International Standard (RSBI – *Rintisan Sekolah Bertaraf Internasional*). Each category includes government (public) and private schools.

Based on the statistics provided by the provincial education office (DIKPORA) on junior high schools, there were 212 public schools and 208 private schools in Yogyakarta managed by MONE (see Table 3.2) at the time of the study. In addition, MORA organized 35 public schools, namely *Madrasah Tsanawiyah* and 49 private schools and a few boarding school (*pesantren*) which were also supported by MONE. In this research, of the 504 schools across districts, the list of schools was taken from the provincial district office website retrieved in June 2011 and selection was done through systematic random sampling by selecting every 44<sup>th</sup> school on the list (Kemper et al., 2003; Cohen, et al., 2007; Gay et al., 2009).

**Table 3.2: Junior High Schools in Yogyakarta Province**

No	District	MONE				MORA and MONE			
		Public	Private	Total	%	Public	Private	Total	%
1.	Kulonprogo	36	31	67	15.95	6	5	11	13.10
2.	Bantul	47	38	85	20.24	9	13	22	26.19
3.	Gunungkidul	59	48	107	25.48	9	18	27	32.14
4.	Sleman	54	50	104	24.76	10	7	17	20.24
5.	Kota Yogyakarta	16	41	57	13.57	1	6	7	8.33
	Yogyakarta Province	212	208	420	100.00	35	49	84	100.00

Source: [www.pendidikan-diy.go.id](http://www.pendidikan-diy.go.id) retrieved in June, 2011

The basic education system (*Pendidikan Dasar*) in Indonesia covers elementary school/MI (6 years) and junior high school (three years, SMP and MTs). The upper level school is *pendidikan menengah* (3 years, SMA or SMK). In each district, the numbers of students and teachers were different as well. Gunungkidul, for example, had more schools; however, the number of students was smaller than that of Sleman (see Table 3.3). In Sleman, there were 23,410 students in public schools and 9,900 students for private schools in the past four years; while Gunungkidul had 20,296 students in public schools and 6,000 students in private schools.

**Table 3.3: The Number of Students in Junior High Schools in Yogyakarta Province**

No	District	Public				Private			
		Student	Teacher	Ratio Teacher to Student	Classroom	Student	Teacher	Ratio Teacher to Student	Classroom
1.	Kulonprogo	14,048	1,171	12	457	3,053	426	7	168
2.	Bantul	23,015	1,809	13	717	5,811	690	8	424
3.	Gunungkidul	20,296	1,581	13	620	6,000	783	8	229
4.	Sleman	23,410	1,723	14	690	9,900	943	11	370
5.	Kota Yogyakarta	10,174	728	14	294	11,507	944	12	377
Total		90,943	7,012	13	2,778	36,271	3,786	9	1,568

Source: [www.pendidikan-diy.go.id](http://www.pendidikan-diy.go.id) retrieved in June, 2011

Lie (2007) points out that in the 2004/2005 academic year, there were almost 11,000,000 young people studying English annually through formal education in Indonesia. Yogyakarta, recognized as the ‘centre of Indonesian education’, and called ‘*kota pelajar*’, had 127,214 junior high school students learning English as one of the core subjects examined in the annual national examination. The student population is very diverse in terms of geographical area, socioeconomic background, school facility and their motivation to learn English. Regarding teachers, there were 10,798 teachers who sometimes had problems both in school access and their minimum teaching requirement which was supposed to be 24 teaching hours per week. Generally, the ratio of teachers to students was 1:11, in public schools 1:13, while 1:7 in private schools managed under MONE and MORA (Table 3.3). These ratios are good since the government had stipulated 1:20 (MONE Regulation No. 74/2008, Article 17).

Based on an average population density of the Yogyakarta province, it achieved 1,083 person per square kilometre according to the statistical bureau agency in 2008. Table 3.4 shows the population and the number of schools in each district (*kotamadya* or *kabupaten*) that indicated more people living in the Yogyakarta municipality, about 11,941 person per square kilometre, compared to other districts. Gunungkidul, on the other hand, had the least population density (461 person/km<sup>2</sup>).

**Table 3.4: Comparison between Areas, Populations and Junior High Schools in Districts**

No	District	Area (km <sup>2</sup> )	Population (person)	Density (pon/km <sup>2</sup> )	Junior High School			
					MONE		MORA	
					Gov.	Private	Gov.	Private
1.	Kulonprogo	586.27	375,000	639	36	31	6	5
2.	Bantul	506.86	910,572	1,796	47	38	9	13
3.	Gunungkidul	1,485.36	686,000	461	59	48	9	19
4.	Sleman	574.80	1,090,567	1,897	54	50	10	7
5.	Kota Yogyakarta	32.50	388,088	11,941	16	41	1	6
<b>Total</b>		<b>3,185.79</b>	<b>3,450,227</b>	<b>1,083</b>	<b>212</b>	<b>208</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>50</b>

Source: [www.yogyakarta.bps.go.id](http://www.yogyakarta.bps.go.id) and [www.pendidikan-diy.go.id](http://www.pendidikan-diy.go.id) retrieved in January, 2011

In this research, the twelve schools can be categorized into three: (1) city, with a population density above 5,000, and the schools are two large sized pilot schools of international standard, one government and the other Catholic, with a combined school population of 1643, (2) urban, whose person/km<sup>2</sup> density ranges between 1000 – 4,999 with five schools: two government national standard schools, a medium sized Islamic school, a government madrasah and a small female boarding pesantren with a total student population of 1942 and (3) rural or regional, ranging between 100 – 900 person/km<sup>2</sup> density with two government schools, a small private school, a small sized Islamic school and a small sized private school with a total school population of 1264. The low population density in the rural areas is due to lack of water availability, infertile land and their distance from the developed urban areas.

### 3.3 Research Participants and Venues

The research participants consisted of three groups in the consultation process, (1) consultation with national, regional and local education officials responsible for the implementation of the KTSP curriculum in the schools under their responsibility, (2) consultation with English language academics in four Yogyakarta universities responsible for the training of English language teachers, and (3) as the key strategy, case studies of twelve systematically selected junior secondary schools in the Yogyakarta province managed by MONE and MORA.

In this research, all five districts were covered with ten schools under MONE management together with two schools with MORA: six were government and six private schools. The location of the schools also varied - two schools in the city, five urban schools and five rural schools (see Table 3.5). The systematic random sampling done by the researcher represented the overall profile of junior high schools in the Yogyakarta province.

**Table 3.5: The Profile of the Twelve Case Studies in the Five Districts**

CS	Description	Density (person/km2)	No. of Students	No. of Teachers (No. of Eng. Lang. Teachers)	No. of Class	School Status	Government Ministry	School Location
1	A junior high school located in a medium-sized town serving mostly a population of small business owners and their employees	3,605	418	36 (4)	12	Government Secular	MONE	Urban
2	A medium-sized Islamic school located on the outskirts of a large town serving a community of farmers and small manufacturers	2,488	432	31 (4)	12	Private Islamic	MONE	Urban
3	A large Catholic school located near the centre of a big city serving a middle to upper class community	13,962	675	29 (4)	18	Private Catholic	MONE	City
4	A large-sized school located in the central business district of a big city serving a middle to upper class community	13,962	968	57 (6)	30	Government Secular	MONE	City
5	A junior high school located in a hilly farming area serving a far-flung community, mostly farmers	266	586	52 (5)	18	Government Secular	MORA	Rural
6	A madrasah junior high school located in a village serving a farming area	1000	568	43 (5)	17	Government Islamic	MONE	Urban
7	A small junior high school located in the centre of a sub-district serving mostly a local farming population	507	130	23 (4)	6	Private Secular	MONE	Rural
8	A small female junior high boarding pesantren located in a medium-sized town serving an area of farmers and small business owners and their employees	2,257	93	38 (5)	4	Private Islamic Boarding	MORA	Urban
9	A junior high school located in a hilly farming area serving mostly a community of farmers	398	324	31 (3)	12	Government Secular	MONE	Rural
10	A small-sized Islamic school located in the village serving a community of farmers	422	150	24 (1)	6	Private Islamic	MONE	Rural
11	A junior high school located in a medium-sized town serving mostly casual workers, government and private employees, and small business owners	3,410	431	38 (3)	15	Government Secular	MONE	Urban
12	A small-sized school located in the village serving a community of farmers and casual workers	636	74	23 (3)	3	Private Secular	MONE	Rural
	<b>Total</b>		<b>4849</b>	<b>425 (47)</b>	<b>81</b>			

The following are the details of the schools that were studied:

### **Case Study 1 (CS 1)**

Located within a mid-sized town with a population of both poor and lower middle class, this national standard school served a school community as shown in the school parent census, made up mostly of small business owners and their employees (70 %) together with merchants and traders (10 %), casual workers (15 %) and government employees (5 %). There were three government schools in the sub-district as well as a medium sized elementary and junior high Catholic school some distance away.

### **Case Study 2 (CS 2)**

The school was founded in 1965 in a busy village, close to the centre of a sub-county in the western area of the district. This sub-county had become the centre of the local economy. It was some distance from a big traditional market famous for its traditional food, the so-called *Keripik Belut* (eel chips). Most of its people are traditional traders (going to the market on bicycles), and some have a cottage tile industry, manufacturing them both at home and in a small factory. Parental occupations varied, mostly farmers (65 %) with entrepreneurs and merchants (20 %) and government employees (15 %).

### **Case Study 3 (CS 3)**

This junior high school, founded in 1928, is sponsored by a Catholic order of religious brothers originally founded in the Netherlands in the 19th century. This large pilot school of international standard located near the centre of a big city serving a middle to upper class community. The school is located in the heart of a Yogyakarta municipality, but far from the noise of traffic and close to two big private universities and one Islamic private primary school. The school has a very quiet and conducive ambience for learning surrounded by private residences. Parents' background was from middle to high family income, about 53.96 per cent worked in private institutions or businesses. Another significant category were entrepreneurs (26.04 %), together with government employees (12.95 %), Indonesian army personnel (2.45 %), retired civil servants (2.73 %) and farmers (1.87 %).

### **Case Study 4 (CS 4)**

A large-sized government school labeled as pilot school of international standard located in the central business district of a big city serving a middle to upper class community. The school was located on a busy one-way road, close to a big government bank, a traditional market, an Islamic university and a government senior high school. The parental profession profile in this school was dominated by government employees (33 %), private employees (29 %), entrepreneurs (28 %),

members of the Indonesian army (3.7 %), casual workers (1.7 %), and others (4.6 %). The vice principal also said that 5 per cent were poor students with sometimes low entrance scores as a result of an affirmative policy that came from the district education office, according to the vice principal.

#### **Case Study 5 (CS 5)**

This junior high school was located at the top of a high hilly area reached after about two hours of driving up a road with many sharp turnings. Most students went to school by public bus which passed by only rarely and teachers rode motorcycles to school. The school had a beautiful garden with a small fountain. The area was rarely visited by outsiders on week days. It was mostly covered with farming lots (90 % of rainfed rice drylands), vegetable plots, timber cutting, small light industry and mining (limestone, pumice stone, calcite, zeolite, quartz sands, etc) together with fishing in the nearby ocean complemented with beach tourism. The people living here had mostly graduated from junior high school, with farmers (83 %), government employees (8 %), casual workers (5 %) and small entrepreneurs (4 %) being the parental occupational profile. To run their lives, the people used their own transport such as motorcycles and mostly bicycles due to the serious lack of public transport. The subsistent nature of the farming meant their incomes were low - 36.56 % fitted this category. Some had their own farming lots while others did farming for others.

#### **Case Study 6 (CS 6)**

The area was covered with farms, paddy fields and crops. The ricefields were a kind of dryland rainfed rice (90 %), and tourist sites were close to this school. The school was far from the noise of the main road though it was located on the main road to some beautiful beaches but far from the noise of the main road because only some trucks and personal vehicles passed by. Public transport was quite adequate though the condition of the street was not really good. The whole environment was characterized by peace and tranquillity and only some trucks and personal vehicles passed through. Concerning parental occupation, the school census showed that parents was mostly farmers (69.1 %), entrepreneurs and merchants (20.4 %) and government employees (10.5 %). According to the teachers, many students lived with their grandparents, while their parents worked outside the village, in town or city and even abroad as household helpers in Middle East countries.

#### **Case Study 7 (CS 7)**

This school was built in 1967 by the Indonesian teachers' association which still sponsored it in the form of seminar or workshop to develop staff competence, not the funding for the school itself, according to the principal. This school was located very close to a government junior high school (just nominated as a Pilot School International Standard), an Islamic sponsored private junior high school, and two other government schools some distance away. Also, the school was located near a

T-junction which was at the heart of the sub-district, so it was ‘crowded’ in terms of daily activities – it was very near to the sub-district office and a medium sized traditional market, always crowded from early morning to late afternoon. When the researcher arrived early in the morning, the sellers were parading their wares right to the very edge of the street. Transportation to the school was thus relatively easy for the students. The students were from families with low educational and economic status. Most parents were farmers (75 %), together with casual workers (10 %), small merchants (10 %) and entrepreneurs (5 %). To reach the school, the students mostly passed by dryland, rainfed rice plots and herb and vegetable farms at the side of the street.

### **Case Study 8 (CS 8)**

This female boarding school was located close to a busy main road connecting a major city and two districts. This road is used by heavy as well as light traffic because the road connects business activity from three districts. On both sides of this road, there were a variety of shops and small restaurants. Located on land measuring 6100 square metres for the two schools (junior (*tsanawiyah*) and senior high school (*aliyah*)) with a two-storey building, the school was located in a very quiet enclave, far from the noisy bustle of the main road, and surrounded by private residences. The overwhelming appearance of the area was of cleanliness and freshness. There was another boarding school for males under the same *pesantren* sponsor some distance away as well as two schools located quite close to this girls’ boarding school, one a government school and the other a private Islamic school. Concerning parental occupation, the school census showed that parents was mostly farmers (47 %), entrepreneurs and merchants (29 %), government employees (13 %) and casual workers (11 %). According to the principal, who was in charge of both schools, many students came from other provinces because it was a *pesantren*. This school was quite popular due to its educational system which was similar to the best boarding school in East Java.

### **Case Study 9 (CS 9)**

This school was first founded in 1975, located in a quiet village at the top of a high hilly area overlooking a river to the west. This sub-district, at first glance, could be seen as a fertile hilly area full of shady trees and cool in the rainy season. However, in the hot, dry season, it becomes somewhat arid due to scarce spring water while the trees lose their leaves. Most of the people here were subsistent farmers living in poverty with low educational background. The school was in the heart of the sub-district, and close to a small sub-district hospital. The environment was very quiet away from the centre of the village which was alive with the daily bustle of the people living in this village. The school street was not busy as it was used only by personnel working in the village office. People living here were mostly farmers (80.94 %), government employees (4.20 %), private employees (10.39 %), members of the Indonesian army (0.25 %) and others (4.22 %) as the



parental occupational profile showed. To run their lives, the people used their own transport such as motorcycles and bicycles due to the scarcity of public transport.

#### **Case Study 10 (CS 10)**

This village school is located close to the central Java province, some distance from a busy main road connecting two provinces. To arrive at the school, one passed along a village street not in good condition with paddy fields on both sides leading up to a sizeable hill behind the school. There was no public transport neither for the people nor for the students travelling to school. The parental occupational profile of this private Islamic based school was unclear. The principal with eight years of leadership experience had been in this school since January 2011 and was unable to detail the occupation profile of the students' parents. He simply said, 'we still have no data about students' parents, but most of them are subsistent farmers on very low incomes'. The English teacher remarked, "parents here are mostly primary school graduates and work as farmers, then they are followed by small traders or sellers in the traditional market and a small percentage of government employees working in other districts and housemaids working some distance from their homes who leave their children to live with their grandparents". It seemed to indicate the students enrolled here in general were from a low educational and socio-economic background.

#### **Case Study 11 (CS 11)**

This national standard school is located on a busy main road connecting two districts, closer to a major city and another district rather than to its sub-district office. The school was previously a government school in the city; however, in 1995, it became a government school in a district due to *pemekaran wilayah* (area development). Since early morning, bicycles, motorcycles, big and small vehicles had passed along the main road which was just two metres from this school and generated much noisy bustle. Regarding parental occupations, it was dominated by casual workers (45 %), private employees (20 %), government employees (15 %), and small entrepreneurs (20 %). This census seemed to indicate that the economic background of the families could be appropriately categorized as in the medium and low family income range. "The families' backgrounds are from the average medium and low income families, but they support their children's education, such as they agree to pay for extra classes for English though the class happens once in a week to all grade seven, eight and nine students", said the vice principal when he was interviewed by the researcher.

#### **Case Study 12 (CS 12)**

This one-stream school is located on the top of a hill, some distance from a kings' burial area, with sharp bends to negotiate when driving higher and higher. There was limited public transport in this area, and not much to a busy traditional market which was located down the hill, quite close to the sub-district office and mostly used by people, not students. The school was far from the noise of

the main street. It was surrounded by forest, cliffs, and a small number of private residences; in brief, the whole environment was characterized by peace and tranquillity, interrupted only by residents passing along the street on their own bicycles or motorcycles. In 2006, the school was wholly destroyed by the earthquake. Concerning parental occupations, the school census showed that parents was mostly farmers (49 %), casual workers (39 %) and small merchants (12 %), but this information was seemingly based on the guesswork of the principal. According to the principal and teachers, the parents' own education background was mostly elementary school and nothing further. To provide for their families, parents worked hard as casual workers during the hot and dry season and some had the traditional home industry of bamboo that was sold in the market. Otherwise, they worked their own paddy fields for their family's food needs rather than to sell. Due to the hilly area, they depend much on the rain for their farms to prosper.

### **3.4 Instrumentation**

This research used mixed method techniques in obtaining both qualitative and quantitative data. Various instruments – survey schedule, observation and documentation – were employed to understand the perceptions of academics and government officials as well as personnel in the systematically sampled junior high schools covering all districts in this province. The following section describes instrumentation, including areas covered in the particular instrument as well as the language used in the questionnaire and interview.

#### **3.4.1 Survey Questionnaires**

Questionnaires which were in Bahasa Indonesia were designed by the researcher based on the review of the relevant literature as well as her experience as an assessor of junior high schools across provinces in Indonesia. The questionnaires were distributed to following school staff:

(1) Principals

They were asked about student enrolment and students' socioeconomic background, as well as the school profile on national examination results within the previous three years (2010, 2011 and 2012). The details such as educational background, teaching experience and in-service training attended were covered as well.

(2) English language teachers

The survey completed by the English teachers covered their teaching experience, educational qualifications, their understanding and perceptions of the 2006 curriculum, and their training needs to improve their teaching professionalism. Self-ratings of their English language skills were done to obtain their language proficiency.

(3) Teachers of subjects other than English

The teachers of subjects other than English were randomly chosen from a school list of full-time and part-time teachers or those who were not teaching (having their recess time). They were surveyed with a questionnaire using items with five – or six – point response scales. This was to ascertain their perceptions of the 2006 curriculum, the provision of learning resources, the sequence of the core subjects and their views of English language teaching at their school. There were in total 184 teachers who participated in filling out the questionnaire. Some teachers answered the questions in their recess; some did it at home.

(4) Junior high school students

The students were given a questionnaire with three options (1 Agree, 2 Neither agree nor disagree, and 3 Disagree) to seek their views regarding English language teaching and learning. The simpler three – point scale made it easier for students to choose. Questions revolve around what core subjects they liked, what teaching media used in class, and problems that students had in learning English. For this survey schedule, some students in Year 7 and 8 were selected and gathered in class during their recess time by their English teachers.

### 3.4.2 Interview Schedule

Interviews which were in either English or Bahasa Indonesia developed by the researcher based on her experience as an assessor and also her review of relevant literature. As has been touched upon before, consultation was also conducted with national curriculum designers, EFL university experts of four universities and provincial and district officials. The questions were about their expertise and experience, about the curriculum including its implementation, as well as the student assessment system. Parents' and teachers' attitudes to the 2006 curriculum was also discussed. This strategy revealed what the government actually wanted and how the implemented curriculum was viewed by district officials or *pengawas* (district supervisor) who directly engaged with school staff.

To ascertain their perceptions of and practices in the implementation of the 2006 curriculum, semi-structured interviews covering various areas were conducted with school staff, namely:

(1) Principals

The questions regarded the principals' leadership in light of curriculum implementation and also their workshop attendance, their school policy regarding curriculum implementation, the problems faced in the implementation process, the state of school facilities and the extent of the learning resources and their perceptions of English language teachers as well as the 2006 curriculum.

(2) English language teachers

The actual interview was about their teaching experience, their English language competence, knowledge of the curriculum, the teaching learning process, the use of teaching materials, their assessment practices, and problems faced in the teaching of English.

(3) School laboratory technicians

Topics areas with school laboratory technicians were around their experiences, perceptions and knowledge of the 2004 and 2006 curriculums, school facilities, their usage and associated problems.

(4) Librarians

They were interviewed about the learning resources the school provided, problems they faced and how well both teachers and students used their learning resources.

Of the twelve schools, the researcher interviewed seven principals (CS 1, CS 2, CS 3, CS 7, CS 8, CS 10, and CS 12). Other principals (CS 4, CS 6, and CS 9) asked the first vice principal (*wakasek*) to respond to the questions due to their busy agenda. In CS 5 and CS 11, the principals were in Mecca to perform the Hajj; so, the researcher asked the vice principal to respond. Regarding teachers to be interviewed, the principal or the vice principals appointed two teachers, one senior and one junior, to be interviewed and observed. Concerning the laboratory technician, there was only one school that had a full time dedicated laboratory technician (CS 1) who was a senior high school graduate. A senior English teacher in CS 2 was the coordinator of laboratories due to her master's degree in learning technology. An information technology teacher was appointed to be the laboratory technician in CS 3 and an economics teacher in CS 4 was responsible for all laboratories. Regarding the librarian, two schools (CS 3 and CS 4) had full time librarians; in other schools, the principals asked one of the teachers to be responsible for their library.

### 3.4.3 Focus Group Discussion

Another valuable data-collecting technique is the use of focus groups that included several students to understand their perceptions of learning English at home and school, and learning support both at home and school. These focus group discussions which were conducted in Bahasa Indonesia were held in the canteen sometimes, in class in their recess time and sometimes in the school yard or garden. Some were conducted in their English class time and sometimes in class during which teachers were not present. This activity was also to ascertain students' motivation in learning English as well as learning media both at school and home.

#### **3.4.4 Checklist for English Class Observation**

Class observations were conducted when English language classes were being conducted; two classes in each school were observed twice, once for senior teachers and once for the junior ones. The observation checklist of the teaching and learning process was employed to ensure whether the teachers taught as they had previously planned.

The observation checklist (appendix 03.04.01) was derived from the MONE Regulation No. 41/2007 concerning process standard Article 1 stating that the process standard for basic education covers lesson plan, its teaching and learning process as well as assessment and its monitoring. According to this regulation, a lesson plan should include, (1) name of subject, (2) competency standard, (3) learning indicators, (5) learning aim(s), (6) teaching material(s), (7) time allocation, (8) teaching methodology, (9) teaching procedures, (10) learning assessment and (11) learning resources (MONE, 2007, p. 8-11).

#### **3.4.5 Checklist for School Observation**

The observation was done in the context of the neighborhood area to ascertain the socio-economic and sociocultural context of the school. School facilities (language laboratory and library) of the twelve case schools were observed as well when the researcher was actually on-site at the schools.

#### **3.4.6 Documentation**

Documentation data were gained from the twelve principals, curriculum (Book 1) and syllabus and lesson plans (Book 2) and from the 25 selected English language teachers (syllabus, lesson plans and textbooks). This was done to see and analyze their school curriculum documentation including syllabus, lesson plans, textbooks, and teachers' assessment (teacher made tests) as well as policy documents, public statements and curriculum guidelines.

#### **3.4.7 Validity and Reliability**

Gay et al. (2009) describe how validity is the degree to which a test measures what it is intended to measure while reliability refers to the degree to which a test consistently measures whatever it measures. Validity and reliability are the key issues to defend the accuracy and credibility of the research. Validity, historically, relates to design quantitative research while reliability is considered in qualitative research. Reliability in quantitative research, according to Cohen et al. (2007), is concerned with precision and accuracy whereas in qualitative studies, it, as suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985) refers to credibility, neutrality, confirmability, dependability, consistency,

applicability, trustworthiness and transferability, in particular the notion of dependability. Gay et al. (2009) suggested validity can be obtained by trustworthiness and understanding that can be achieved through various strategies.

“Descriptive validity refers to the factual accuracy of the account. Interpretive validity is attributed to the behaviors or words of the participants. Theoretical validity refers to how well the research report relates the phenomenon under study to a broader theory. Evaluative validity has to do whether the researcher was objective enough to report the data in an unbiased way, without making judgments and evaluations of the data.” (Gay et al., 2009, p. 374-376)

Guba (1981) asserts that trustworthiness can be performed by addressing the credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability of their studies and findings (Guba, 1981, p. 75-91).

As previously mentioned, the validity of the data was also obtained by triangulating data collection strategies and data sources, namely documentation, survey schedule, and observation to get a more complete picture of what was being studied and to cross-check information. Lodico et al. (2006) point out that in case studies, multiple techniques – interviews, observations, and, at times, the examination of documents and artifacts – are employed. The aim is to provide a richly detailed description of the situation and to capture the full complexity and uniqueness of the case information. Cohen et al. (2007) defined triangulation as the use of two or more methods of data collection which is a powerful way of demonstrating validity especially in qualitative research.

To achieve validity and reliability, piloting of the instruments, particularly the interview schedule and the questionnaire was done on 3 November 2011 at a government urban school (SMPN 1 Kalasan, Sleman). The researcher visited the school and met the principal to ask permission regarding the piloting of the two instruments (questionnaire and interview schedule). On the next day, the researcher validated the instruments with the principal, three English teachers, English laboratory technician, librarian and two students. For this piloting, the researcher gave Rp. 50.000 (fifty thousand rupiah or equal to AUD \$ 5) per teacher; students were given snacks. Based on piloting, some minor changes were made.

### **3.5 Data Collection**

The research data were collected from two different contexts: one was ‘outside’ the schools whereas the other was ‘inside’ school contexts. The former refers to data collecting with national, provincial and district education officials that was conducted prior to the case studies whereas the latter was obtained from the twelve case studies. Semi-structured interviews were conducted at the national level with one of the staff in the National Education Standard Agency and a national curriculum designer. At the provincial level, interviews were conducted with a former head of the

Provincial Education Office and an in-service trainer of Provincial Quality Assurance. In the districts, the supervisors of all five regions were also interviewed in their offices.

Regarding EFL academics, the researcher visited a state university and three private universities with faculties of teacher training. Five senior lecturers and a junior one were interviewed at their campuses to ascertain their perception of the 2006 curriculum implementation, particularly on curriculum development, teaching materials development, the teaching and learning process, learning assessment/test development and learning facilities.

**Table 3.6: List of Research Instruments Used for Data Collection from the 12 Case Studies**

No	Research Instrument	Participant	Number
1	Survey questionnaire	- School principal	12
		- English language teacher	25
		- Non-English language teacher	184
		- Student	363
2	Interview schedule	- School principal	12
		- English language teacher	25
		- Librarian	12
		- Laboratory technician	4
3	Question for FGD	- Randomly selected student	363
4	Checklist for English class observation	- English classes	25
5	Checklist for school observation	- School	12
6	Documentation	- Curriculum	12
		- Syllabus	25
		- Lesson plan	25
		- Previous test data (national examination)	

The key strategy of this study was gained from the twelve systematically sampled junior secondary schools with students aged 13 to 15, consisting of four steps: (1) gaining access to the school, (2) collection of data during 2-4 days in each school, (3) detailed case study report for each school, and (4) content analysis of the twelve reports, including quantitative and qualitative analysis of survey/interview/test data from the twelve schools.

### 3.6 Experience in Collecting the Data

Delivering the permission letter was not a simple matter. The researcher handed to the twelve principals the permission letter from the heads of the particular district with the research proposal. It sometimes was difficult to meet the twelve principals as most of the time they had external activities. The researcher first phoned the twelve schools to gain an appointment with the principal. The staff sometimes suggested the researcher come early in the morning to see the principals before they had external activities. As previously mentioned, two principals (CS 5 and 11) had gone on the Hajj and delegated their duties to their vice principals.

In CS 1 and CS 2, the two female principals, both English teachers, were cooperative in terms of permission though they objected to being observed as English teachers. They appointed senior and junior teachers for classroom observation. In CS 3, the principal directly appointed a senior female English teacher who was the best in the school according to the principal. In CS 4, though it was difficult to gain an appointment with the principal, eventually the researcher met this very busy principal in his office. Discussing the purpose of the research which emphasized the curriculum, the principal seemed not interested in engaging with the research and asked one of the staff to organize a meeting time with the best senior English teacher as well as the coordinator of the district panel subject teacher (MGMP) the week after. This teacher then introduced the researcher to the vice principal (*wakasek* 1) and asked his willingness to be interviewed. This might have been due to many researchers and teachers from other provinces observing this popular international school in the city. When the researcher came the second time to observe the senior English teacher, there was a group of teachers from West Sumatra visiting this school. The vice principal remarked, “lots of principals and teachers visit and they sometimes ask for a copy of the curriculum.”

At CS 5, CS 6, CS 7, CS 9, CS 10 and CS 12, school access was difficult. It took sometimes more than two hours to reach the school due to busy traffic in the morning and poor road conditions often full of sharp turns leading up to the mountains. So, the researcher always journeyed early in the morning. Though she arrived at school early in the morning, she still found it difficult to meet the principal or the vice principal. Sometimes it was due to the fact that they were new to the position. The vice principal of CS 9 tried to avoid the interview as he was new to his position which may have hindered his understanding or capacity regarding the curriculum.

In CS 10, the principal lived very far from this school and rarely came to the school for his activities as principal. “He will be participating in a national workshop in Bandung for a week”, said the English teacher. When the researcher came, the principal said, “Do you think this school is appropriate to observe? No researcher ever came here, not even the student teachers to practice their teaching. We actually need them because there is only one English teacher here”. It seemed to indicate that because of being in an ‘isolated’ area, nobody had made a visit to this school.

At CS 12, this principal courteously welcomed the researcher; however, it was clear from the first meeting, this principal thought that the researcher would give the school ‘some funding’ due to its very minimum facilities. As well, he had no idea about research in schools. After being interviewed, he asked the researcher to give the school a set of computers, including a printer because the only computer purchased for administration had broken down.



After meeting the principals and vice principals, the researcher submitted the survey schedule that would then be distributed to teachers who taught subjects other than English. As a small token of appreciation, the researcher provided them with snacks or souvenirs according to Indonesian custom.

Regarding the English teachers' interviews, the researcher found difficulty selecting the teachers she wanted because principals directly appointed two teachers, one senior and one junior in terms of teaching duration at the school. To set the time for interview and classroom observation was not simple. All teachers needed to fulfill their required 24 teaching hours in class which sometimes are in different districts. In CS 2, the junior teacher taught in two schools (junior high and vocational) in one district. The senior teacher of CS 6 taught in two different districts managed by two ministries (MONE and MORA) and a senior teacher in CS 8 was in two junior high schools managed by MONE and MORA. This senior teacher was not yet certified due to his educational background. The senior teacher in CS 7 taught in two junior high schools, and the senior teacher in CS 12 taught in two schools managed by MONE and MORA. For these teachers, it was difficult to set a time for interview as well as for classroom observation. The syllabus and lesson plans that they gave to the researcher were 'old versions'. They claimed that they had no time to have a new lesson plan suited to the teaching material on that day. This lack of time was mostly the reason why teachers did not create any new lesson plans.

However, managing the time for interviewing the teachers in one school was not easy. In CS 3 and 4, both international program schools, the teachers were very busy teaching in class during school hours. After school hours, they taught extra classes to prepare students for the national examination. The interview then was conducted in their fifteen minute break time and sometimes needed to be continued after school hours. In CS 5, a male senior teacher made it very clear that he did not wish to be observed and said that the privilege should be best reserved for the female teachers who were willing to be interviewed together – junior and senior teachers. In CS 1, both teachers were very busy teaching in class and the interview was conducted after school hours though they sometimes felt uncomfortable by saying, "are the questions all answered? How many questions left?". In CS 7, the junior teacher cried when she was interviewed. She said, "I'm sorry, I don't know what to say, I sometimes cry if it's difficult to say". It took several minutes for her to regain composure. Her weeping might be because of the researcher's question regarding her final comments about English language teaching. This teacher perhaps was ashamed of her answers and comments as well as her status as a twelfth semester student. In CS 12, the senior teacher came to the school unscheduled. One of the teachers acknowledged, "Teachers here rarely come even on days, for example, of their teaching schedule. They come only when they have spare time, not

according to their schedule. That's why we have a schedule here but it is very 'negotiable'. And when they have finished teaching, they directly go home or do other things, not for the school".

The time to interview and to conduct classroom observation of English teachers was not easily planned though the schedule had been set up before. They sometimes cancelled the meeting without notice to the researcher due to their un-prepared lesson or other things such as their health or family health issues. Additionally, the time to do the research was close to the final semester tests and the distance from one school to another within one district or across districts was far and sometimes with bad access.

The survey schedule and focus group discussion for students were complicated as well. Some were not willing to do it in their recess time or in after school hours. Thus, the researcher sometimes distributed the questionnaire in English time and had focus group discussion in class straight away. The students were selected as well by the English teachers or the principals. In CS 1 and CS 5, the principal chose the students and asked them to come to one of the laboratories to have focus group discussion and fill out the questionnaire. In CS 2, the senior English teacher asked the researcher to come to the class in which no teacher did teaching. In CS 4, the senior English teacher asked ten students not to join the class but they had the questionnaire to fill out. Most of the students were eager to participate in this research because they sometimes got bored learning English. The same thing happened as well for other teachers who indicated they preferred their teaching time to being interviewed by the researcher. In CS 6, the researcher and the senior English teacher approached students in their recess time in front of the school where food sellers with bicycles sold snacks and drink, and it was done three times with different students. In brief, to have focus group discussion with students, most English teachers gave up their teaching time for the research. Some students positively responded and some just kept silent.

### **3.7 Data Analysis Technique**

This evaluation research is to evaluate the implementation of the 2006 curriculum in multiple sites. Gay et al. (2009) and Merriam (1998) pointed out that case study research undertaken about the 'same phenomenon but at multiple sites to improve the external validity or generalizability of the research even though it is not easy to generalize the events from one site to other sites with similar characteristics' (Gay et al., 2009, p. 430). As Yin (2009) asserted, case studies employ the holistic and natural approach, and the data gained from the twelve case studies were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The survey schedule, particularly the questionnaire, was analyzed by SPSS to ascertain the non-English teacher perceptions on the implementation of the KTSP

curriculum, particularly English language teaching as well as the motivation of students in learning English.

The qualitative data gained from semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions, class observation and schools' documentation were analyzed within various procedures: (1) preparing and organizing the data, (2) classifying the data into themes through coding and condensing, and (3) representing the data in figures, tables as well as narration (Cresswell, 1998). This holistic analysis was deployed for the entire cases. It meant the researcher collected the data and described each case study in detail. The case studies are contained in Volume Two. From such detailed description, the data then were interpreted.

### **3.8 Ethical Issue Data Entry**

Regarding entry into and data collection in the twelve schools, the researcher firstly asked for approval from the province through the Provincial Secretary with letters from the Rector of Sarjanawiyata Tamansiswa University, the RMIT research ethics committee, and the senior supervisor as well as forwarding the research proposal, including questions for both survey and interview schedule. This approval letter together with the documents (proposal and a list of questions) were then given to the head of the five districts and each district wrote permission letters to the principals with copies sent to government organisations at the district and sub-district levels.

In ethics terms, the proposal was categorized as more than low risk due to the involvement of students under 18 years old. Accordingly, the researcher gained the Victorian Working With Children Check (WWCC) as a volunteer to gain the approval from the ethics committee in RMIT university even though there is no equivalent of the WWCC in Indonesia. In addition, the Plain Language Statement and Consent Form were read and then signed by the participants. They were always reminded that participation in the research was voluntary and it was understood that this research would not affect their professional career. It was not anticipated that this research would generate adverse events. If teachers were critical of the curriculum, there was no possibility that this would harm their career as the information was given confidentially in interviews. They were told their appraisals, when collectively analyzed as part of the overall evaluation, would be fed back to national, provincial, and local district education officials and academics specializing in English language teaching.

Accordingly, it was quite complicated to obtain this ethics approval since the procedures for doing research in Indonesia are different from research undertaken in Australia. In Indonesia, permission to gather research data in government and private schools lies in the hands of local district

education officials and the school principal. The Indonesian protocol, firstly, was to obtain a letter asking permission to do the research. This letter was from the applicant's university, *Sarjanawiyata Tamansiswa* University and, in this case, a letter from her RMIT supervisor with the RMIT ethics approval attached. Secondly, the applicant approached the provincial education office which gave a stamp of approval to approach the five local district education offices of *Bantul*, *Yogyakarta*, *Sleman*, *Gunungkidul* and *Kulonprogo*. Thirdly, after obtaining this written permission, the applicant went to the local district education office and this office gave her a letter to the 12 schools and their principals, approving the research study. It was this office which made the ultimate decision. Access to schools resides neither with the provincial office nor with the school principal but with the local education office. With this, approval and condition for entry into each school were obtained from each principal.

### **3.9 Summary**

A mixed qualitative and quantitative approach was deployed in this research to evaluate the implementation of the 2006 curriculum in junior high schools in Yogyakarta. The twelve schools were sampled systematically from 420 junior high schools managed by MONE and 84 madrasah and pesantren managed by MONE and MORA within five districts – Kota Yogyakarta, Sleman, Bantul, Kulonprogo and Gunungkidul. The research questions generated rich and detailed data which was achieved by the mixed qualitative and quantitative research strategy. The qualitative data revealed the perception of primary stakeholders (curriculum designer, National Education Standard Agency (BSNP) and university academics), secondary stakeholders (principals, teachers, language laboratory, librarian and students) and tertiary stakeholders (district supervisors). It was done mostly by semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions among students. Additionally, class observation of the English language teaching was also done to understand the teaching strategy and the engagement of students in class. The quantitative data were gained from teachers of subjects other than English to ascertain their perceptions of the 2006 curriculum implementation and students to understand their motivation in learning English. The curriculum documentation of each school, government regulations, local, regional and national newspapers were utilized to enrich the qualitative data. The findings in this research were obtained by triangulating three different sources, documentation, survey schedule and interview. Against each data source, having rich data would give a clear picture of stakeholders' perceptions regarding the 2006 curriculum implementation that were described in detail and they would be written as findings in the fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, and ninth chapters of this thesis.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **EVALUATION OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CURRICULUM: THE PERSPECTIVES OF CURRICULUM DESIGNERS, ACADEMICS, AND PROVINCIAL AND DISTRICT SUPERVISORS**

This chapter discusses the perceptions of curriculum designers and four academics from different universities in Yogyakarta province. The next sub-section outlines the perceptions of district supervisors as those responsible in the districts to maintain and enhance the quality of school staff, in particular principals and teachers.

#### **4.1 Curriculum Designers and Academics: Their Perceptions**

Regarding implementation of English language curriculum, two national curriculum designers as well as six EFL university experts from four universities in Yogyakarta were interviewed. The researcher categorized their views into five topic areas: (1) the English language curriculum and its development at the school level, (2) teaching material development, (3) teaching and learning process, (4) learning assessment and (5) learning facilities.

##### **4.1.1 The English Language Curriculum and its Development at the School Level**

The scholars and academics at national and regional levels contended that there was no difference between the competency-based curriculum (2004) and the school-based curriculum (2006). The aim was to achieve communicative competence. The BSNP official contended,

“There is no drastic change between the current and the previous curriculum. This is a school-based curriculum development, so school teachers have freedom to develop their own curriculum to fit the schools as long as it is based on the core-competency standardized by the BSNP. Teachers should be creative in developing their curriculum. But, many teachers are not aware that they are now free to develop their own curriculum based on the standards set by the board.”

A similar vein was also noted by the curriculum designer. She said, “Content and competency standards are not changed, so basically they are the same, except that in the curriculum book or curriculum document in 2004, we provided the fully-fledged curriculum, whereas in the 2006 curriculum, actually the school develops its own curriculum but they have to use competence standards taken from the CBC. The school only receives the competence standard and no description of whatever standard, no elaboration of the underlying theories. All subjects are under the name of competence-based curriculum. It’s a big shift paradigm in 2004.”

Mulyasa (2008) added that the 2006 curriculum could be different between schools; thus, schools were required to develop their own curriculum to accord with the sociocultural environment and

the particular characteristics of students as well as of the school. Similarly, a lecturer who is a staff member in the Directorate General of Management for Primary and Secondary Education (DGMPSSE) pointed out that learning indicators in the 2006 curriculum were not written down in the syllabus devised by the government. According to him, teachers need to develop the syllabus and lesson plans, however, he was unsure of teacher capability to do it.

A national curriculum designer said, “Developing the curriculum documentation is not a simple job, and teachers are not curriculum developers. Their job is teaching in class”. This indicated that teachers seemed not to be able to develop the curriculum. Teachers become curriculum implementors in class. Furthermore, she noted, “I think it’s easy to say than do. It’s not an easy matter. The school curriculum covers everything, all subjects and I’m not sure of the schools’ ability to develop its own curriculum. I think they continue the old practices. To me, teachers are not curriculum developers, all they want is that ‘I don’t care about the curriculum or syllabus, just give me the materials and I just follow the book’.”

An English lecturer and textbook writer reiterated the same point, “Teachers are not curriculum developers and they are not ‘born’ to think of that”. This indicated that the teachers’s job was to teach, not to develop, revise or evaluate the curriculum. Also, he highlighted the importance of the district supervisor in assisting teachers because the decentralized system required them to do so.

A regional trainer as well as English lecturer said, “There is no difference between competency-based and school-based curriculum; however, the infrastructure such as teachers and district supervisors should totally comprehend the curriculum. Everybody seems unfamiliar with the curriculum. The district supervisors just understand the surface/superficial, not the substance of the curriculum”. It indicated that teacher professionalism, particularly pedagogical and professional competences, still remained a big issue in the implementation of the KTSP curriculum, six years after its implementation.

She further remarked that the district supervisors should help the schools though they seemed to blame the school if it had a curriculum developed that was different to other schools. Another point was that the district supervisors insisted on the three phase strategy of teaching – Exploration, Elaboration and Confirmation. It made teachers more confused. Eventually, as an English trainer, she suggested teachers have two lesson plans, one for the district supervisor which accords to what he/she wants and the second for their own convenience to accord with the best method the teachers believed in. This indicated that even academics seemed to suggest that all members – policy makers, people in university, teachers, and supervisors – should be well informed and grounded.

As previously touched upon, the Indonesian government had been restructuring its governance arrangements from a centralized to a decentralized system which was embedded in the philosophy of diversity in unity. This had impacted on the educational paradigm in the context of decentralization, democratization and regional autonomy (Madya, 2008). This was revealed in the 2006 curriculum that was first introduced as the 2004 competency-based curriculum. The KTSP curriculum should be based on standards of graduate competency, content and process developed by central government. Though the government had accommodated the uniqueness of each district through the 2006 curriculum, school staff found difficulty in developing their school-based curriculum. Schwartz (2006) contended that the curriculum developer provides teachers with clear materials and specific directives; in fact, the standard competence and basic competence stipulated by the government seemed to indicate ‘very general’. A pre-service and in-service trainer noted that the language in the competency standard and basic competence is not ‘teacher friendly’.

#### **4.1.2 Teaching Materials Development**

Regarding teaching material development, all agreed that teachers in general were unable to develop their own teaching materials. Teachers depended very much on the textbooks published by national and local publishers. “Many teachers teach English by the books; they are not creative”, said the BSNP official. An assessor for junior high schools, also a lecturer at a Yogyakarta state university noted,

“Basically books are provided by the government. Teachers can adapt and it seems they follow the books rather than their written lesson plans. However, teachers use more LKS written by incompetent writers and it does not go through a good selection process. The biggest problem is teachers do not do what they have planned. Syllabus and lesson plans are for the sake of official documentation. Teachers do not reflect on their teaching. That’s a report of Monitoring and Evaluating done by JICA (Japan International Cooperation Agency) in six provinces.”

A book writer and also senior lecturer pointed out that the government provided electronic textbooks and few teachers took the teaching materials from that electronic resource. It might be because the electronic books were expensive. As a result, teachers used the cheap textbooks published by a local publisher. He further said,

“Teachers about 50 % use more students’ workbook (LKS) and they are not written by competent writers. Less than 5 per cent write their own teaching materials.”

A lecturer and textbook writer for secondary students further stated, “Teachers’ reading comprehension is very low. It impacts on teachers’ ability to develop teaching materials and particularly to determine indicators or learning aims. If the learning aim is not good, it then becomes bad”. Another point to highlight according to this lecturer is teachers’ classroom language. They failed to create the classroom as the place to communicate in English for both teachers and students. Teachers seemed to explain and eventually teachers focused more on written

activities from *Lembar Kerja Siswa* (student workbook). Teachers according to him did not have “strong beliefs” regarding English language, learning and teaching; thus, when teachers found a new methodology, they then adopted it and did not relate it to what they already understood about ELT. “When it comes to a new paradigm, they immediately become confused”, he contended. He further said that teachers are still incapable of planning a lesson; only less than five per cent could develop teaching materials. In other words, teachers depended much on textbooks. In addition, an English language trainer and an assessor said, “Teachers teach the same texts, same procedures, same persons, different years, they are not able to develop according to their situation and accommodate students’ condition. They are practitioners rather than professionals. They just simply try what they have heard”.

Regarding English language teaching, Government Regulation No. 19/2005 stipulates that language education should develop language competence with special emphasis on reading and writing according to the literacy level set for every level of education. In the content standard, it is mentioned that the ultimate goal of learning English is to participate in discourse or to communicate ideas, feelings, etc in spoken and written English accurately, fluently and in an acceptable manner (Agustien, 2006). Thus, the curriculum aimed at providing school graduates with skills in the sense that they are expected to achieve the competence required to obtain communication skills. She further remarks that the 1994 curriculum was claimed to aim for communicative competence; but it listed many topics, but never listing the targets of communicative events, that is, the genres such as description, recount and narrative. “It is only as long as they cover the topics and the grammatical items, not the communicative events. The textbook used was based on the 1994 curriculum, according to my colleague’s research, listed more on themes and limited text types (description, recount and some narratives).” A person from the DGMPSE said, “Due to the decentralized system as well as school-based management, teachers themselves ought to develop their syllabus and lesson plans in accordance with school and students’ characteristics; however, teachers follow textbooks and student workbooks written by incompetent writers (*diragukan kompetensinya* (sic) – writers that we are in-doubt about their English competence)”.

#### **4.1.3 Teaching Learning Process**

Another issue regarding curriculum implementation was the teaching learning process. As Hamied (2012) found, English teachers’ academic background and qualifications did not meet the minimum requirements set out in the Law of Education; thus, over 30 % had no academic qualifications and it impacted on their teaching performance. Almost all academics claimed that English teachers



were lack of competent as good models of English language users and test developers. A national curriculum designer said,

“We are teaching language, the biggest problem is teachers’ proficiency, when they are not capable of using English as the classroom language and it has direct impacts to scaffolding talk and when they write a test, their English is not good enough, their ability to write a test item is low.”

The BSNP official remarked that many teachers were not really competent in English so that they did not serve as good models of the English language. As well, many school principals were so worried by the national examination that the teaching and learning process was dictated by the test items (teach to the test), especially when the time for the national examination became closer. Additionally, he further acknowledged that there was still misinterpretation of the role of text types included in the competence standard. He further said,

“They think that the so-called genre-based approach is like discourse analysis. Many teachers teach by explaining the concepts of text types so that they focus more on the knowledge about the text types. Actually, the genre-based approach should be interpreted as exposing the students to all kinds of text types in practicing their language for communication so that they will be familiar with all kinds of genres in using the language for communication.”

A lecturer and an assessor summed it up, “Teachers’ competences are mediocre. Teachers are confused with the policy of curriculum implementation. Their teaching is emphasized more on discourse analysis and they neglect grammar teaching”. It implies teachers teach about the language rather than language competence as stipulated by the government.

In other words, the teaching and learning process seemed to be ‘test-oriented’ in which teachers drilled students questions for the national examination. The focus was on form (grammar) or about the language rather than on meaning. Students seemed to be robotically rehearsing language they have just been taught. Teachers felt pressure to get their students to pass the national examination rather than to develop students’ communicative competence.

#### **4.1.4 Learning Assessment**

Teachers’ inadequate capacity in developing test items according to the academics resulted from their limited English language proficiency and also the lack of agreement among the academics as to how to assess communicative competence, particularly for the speaking skill. “Teachers simply take any tests and give it to students without considering the characteristics of a good test for their students”, said a senior lecturer and teacher educator. A staff member from the DDJSE also pointed to teachers’ inability to assess students. He noted,

“We need to find the best formulation to balance the assessment of four language skills through the communicative approach, such as how to assess listening and speaking skills appropriately. There is a school examination, however, I’m not sure whether listening and speaking are assessed well. I’m

in doubt with the reliability, validity and its measurement. Lots of teachers do not want to develop their professionalism. When they have money from teacher certification, they buy motorbikes and cars rather than to improve their capacity in teaching English. They have bad commitment to school and students.”

Due to the pressure of the national examination, teachers seemed to explain and eventually focus more on written activities from the student workbook (LKS) written by teachers and published by local publishers. The BSNP official said that teachers were not well-trained in assessment or test development, so school examinations and classroom-based tests were not well managed as teachers were lack of capacity to develop tests. “The tests were not filtered to fit the core-competence set in the content standard. The national examination, classroom-based assessment and school examination should really be managed well to monitor progess and provide feedback to help students reach the standards”, he added.

#### **4.1.5 Learning Facilities**

That learning facilities across the twelve case studies were so diverse has been acknowledged by most academics. The BSNP official remarked that teachers had better knowledge of advances in information technology. “Schools have been provided with a laptop, LCD and WiFi”, a senior lecturer contended. The curriculum designer added, “Some schools are poor but you cannot complain about facilities because the internet is there”. However, the problem was teachers’ incapability with such modern learning equipment. “Lots of schools ignored their multimedia laboratory”, most academics noted. Most schools in the twelve case studies had access to the internet; however, few teachers made use of the internet as their learning resource. Academics said such situations happened due to teachers’ lack of competency and their lazy attitude. A senior lecturer remarked,

“To me, it’s all about the teacher. Some teachers are creative because they make use of the internet. Some teachers are lazy and asked the publishers to give them lots of grammatical exercises for students to do.”

The national curriculum designer was so doubtful with the notion of communicative competence implemented in Indonesia because of English teachers’ questionable proficiency and creativity to make use of internet access. “Some teachers are lazy even when they talk to the publisher, ‘why didn’t you give us a book with a lot of grammatical exercises?’”, a national curriculum designer added.

In brief, academics’ perceptions focused on three aspects of the 2006 curriculum implementation, (1) the inadequate competency of teachers, (2) poor leadership of principals, (3) the ‘ignorance’ of districts in managing schools, particularly teachers through in-service training and (4) the

incapability of district supervisors in supervising teachers. As well, there have been pros and cons regarding the implementation of the KTSP curriculum though the government had stated in 2010 that at all levels of education, primary up to secondary level, it should have been implemented. An evaluation of the 2006 curriculum had not been conducted, however, the government will implement the new curriculum, the so called, 2013 curriculum.

#### **4.2 The Perceptions of Provincial and District Supervisors in Yogyakarta Province**

As a decentralized system with authority focussed at the district layer, the education system particularly the curriculum was still centrally managed under the MONE together with the MORA in terms of ‘Religion’ matters. “District staff had inadequate knowledge regarding the curriculum, so teachers tend to talk about their problems to province rather than to the districts. The Provincial Education Officials cannot respond since the authority now is with the districts”, said a previous head of PEO. As the second layer, PEO seemed to be only the representative of the central government providing grants competed for by schools in any district. She further pinpointed the failure of school management, that is, principals, who, according to her, were focusing on ‘*manajerial* (management)’ rather than ‘leadership’. She noted that principals should understand thoroughly the curriculum stipulated by the government and oversee what is best for their schools. “Principals think the curriculum is documentation that should be done without consideration of the characteristics of the schools. The curriculum is managed under school-based management; however, principals just follow the curriculum, not develop it. To me, the ‘centre’ thinks simplicity in terms of curriculum development such as having a one or two day in-service training to understand the curriculum”, she said.

A senior English language trainer in quality assurance at the provincial level noted that the job description of the quality assurance board was to ‘facilitate’ schools in the form of writing, arranging as well as ensuring quality standard (standard operational procedure – SOP) in order to meet with the eight national education standards. “Concerning the quality assurance of each, the responsibility is in the hands of each school”, according to him. He further emphasized that the responsibility for the provincial quality assurance process covered both ‘academic’ and ‘non-academic’ issues. When he was asked a specific question relating to his role in schools, he said, “Schools belong to districts. We are here to ‘facilitate’ schools in implementing the eight national standards. What we have already done is in line with what the government stipulated”. It seemed to indicate that the province had no power in assessing the quality standard of schools. In other words, the policy was still in the hands of central government or more centralized than decentralized.

In the level of districts and schools, district supervisors had an important role in assessing the implementation of the curriculum in particular and the eight national standards in general. To create a decentralized system where authority lies with the district, the government mandated regulation No. 12/2007 regarding supervisors. The regulations stipulate that supervisors are teachers who have 24 teaching hours in class or 37.5 hours in total per week (MONE Regulation No. 74/2008 and The Ministry of Public Human Resource Regulation – *Pendayagunaan Aparatur Negara* No. 21/2010). For junior high level, one supervisor ought to be supervising a minimum of 7 and maximum 15 schools, while at senior high school level it is 5 and 10 respectively.

One of the requirements to be supervisors are they be masters-level graduates in their area of teaching expertise and possess six competences: (1) personal attributes, (2) management supervision, (3) academic supervision, (4) educational evaluation, (5) research and development and (6) social competency. Their responsibility is to guide and assess schools in implementing the eight national standards. The relevant regulation of the ministry which has responsibility for managing all public human resource (No. 21/2010 Article 1) states that supervisor's activities are to manage, conduct and evaluate the supervision program in schools and mentor and assess teachers; however, far back in 1996, this ministry through the regulation No. 118/1996, MONE No. 03420/O/1996 and the head of state personnel administration No. 38/1996 and MONE No. 020/U/1998 state that the main duties of a supervisor are supervising, advising, monitoring, reporting, coordinating and providing leadership.

“Schools managed by the MONE are supervised by supervisors at the district level (DEO) while madrasah and pesantren are supervised by the District Education Religious Office (*Kantor Kementrian Agama*), managed by *Mapenda Kanwil Kemenag*”, said the vice principal of CS 6 and the principal of CS 8. However, according to supervisors in city, urban and rural areas, schools under MONE were supervised by them including madrasahs. “Our job description is of school management (20 %) with the school principals and academic support (80 %) teachers”, a city-based district supervisor said.

A telling incident happened when the researcher interviewed the principal in CS 8. A supervisor has visited the school and observed one of the teachers using an assessment checklist. From its appearance, it seemed the teachers were assessed on a numeric scale. This assessment would be copied and given to the principal as school documentation. This was confirmed by the senior and junior English teachers saying the same thing. The principal noted, “The supervision of teachers here is done by the supervisors of the district under the MORA, the so called *Mapenda (Majelis Pendidikan Dasar dan Menengah)*.” Furthermore, the principal said that ‘supervision’ occurred once a month. The method of supervision was also unique; supervisors moved around and observed

from outside the classroom through the window for a very short time. They had never given any feedback to teachers. The feedback would be given to the principal and he sometimes shared the feedback in a workshop for all teachers. “Supervisor observation rarely happened due to the limited number of supervisors and their educational qualifications. They have different educational backgrounds”, added the principal. In other words, proper and professional supervision and assessment simply did not occur.

The data regarding the number of supervisors in the Yogyakarta province of secondary schools varied. Table 4.1 shows the number of supervisors for secondary schools (SMP, SMA, SMK) in the Yogyakarta province based on the interview data of the five selected district supervisors. MONE had stipulated one supervisor supervises 7 – 15 junior high schools and/or 40 – 60 junior high school teachers (No. 12/2007 and No 39/2009). The minimum standard of district supervisors (No. 129A/U/2004) was, as a minimum, to visit every school for three hours once a month. However, what happened was very different. The number of schools and teachers compared to the number of supervisors in total did not match. Research conducted by a post-graduate student at Gadjah Mada University found that the ratio of supervisor to schools in the Yogyakarta municipality, for example, was 1:40 on average; while Hatmanto – a previous provincial quality assurance official – said that based on the data from DEO, March 2011, one district had 18 supervisors for a total of 523 schools – kindergarten to secondary level (Regional Newspaper – *Suara Merdeka*, 2012), an average of 29.1 schools.

**Table 4.1: Secondary Schools X District Supervisor Profile in the Academic Year 2011/2012**

District	MONE SCHOOLS			MORA SCHOOLS		Total No. of Schools	Total No. of Supervisors	Ratio Supervisor to School	Supervisors with English Qualification
	SMP	SMA	SMK	MTs	MA				
Sleman	104	45	53	17	12	231	33	7	5
Kota Yogyakarta	57	47	31	7	6	148	5	29.6	1
Gunungkidul	107	23	42	29	5	206	26	7.9	2
Kulonprogo	67	16	36	11	4	134	22	6.1	1
Bantul	85	34	41	22	11	193	14	13.8	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>421</b>	<b>165</b>	<b>203</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>912</b>	<b>99</b>	<b>9.2</b>	<b>9</b>

Generally, the number of supervisors accorded with the regulation, but there was a severe lack of supervisors in the city area, though more supervisors were stationed in suburban districts (Table 4.1). According to one district supervisor, this lack of supervisors might have occurred because the additional supervisor recruitment was always rejected by the district employee agency (*Badan Kepegawaian Daerah*) with ‘unreasonable arguments’. The agency was unsure about the position descriptions of supervisors. “It seems the agency does not understand government regulations regarding supervisors. They do not understand the district supervisors’ responsibility”, said this senior supervisor. It indicated that supervisors in the Yogyakarta province were still lacking in

numbers and educational background (see Table 4.1), particularly in English which took 13 per cent of the whole subject time on average in all the twelve case studies.

Such a lack of supervisors was ‘complained of’ by English teachers. English teachers in CS 4 contended, “Supervisors never observe our teaching in class. They visit a school to see the principal”. In CS 4, a pilot international school, the coordinator of the district English panel of teachers taught in this school. The indications seemed to be that teachers’ competence was not an issue for this school since the supervisor might think teachers’ teaching there were good. However, English teachers in CS 3, an international school as well, had never been observed by a district supervisor. So, the label ‘international school’ implied that teacher quality was supposed to be ‘good’.

Added to this, some district supervisors were also designated as curriculum developers (*Tim Pengembang Kurikulum*) in the province and their duty was supervising other districts and at national level conducting training for principals and teachers regarding the implementation of the curriculum in other provinces. Of the five supervisors selected for interview based on their teaching experience, three acknowledged that they were often assigned to visit other schools in other provinces. The only city-based supervisor with an English language qualification had been for twelve years a trainer at national level. This supervisor (supervising CS 3 and CS 4) found it difficult to manage her time to assess and supervise the principals and English teachers in her district. She spoke proudly of her busy workload, saying in English,

“One supervisor has seven schools to be managed and 40 teachers to be supervised at the level of junior and senior high schools. However, I do not know what happened in this district because it has a very limited number of supervisors but it does not happen in other districts – one for *SMA*, two for *SMP* and 2 for *SMK*, and there are 52 *SMAs* in this district and automatically that is all my responsibility. For 80 per cent, we need to assess how teachers teach in class including syllabus and RPP (lesson plan) in one group subject (*rumpun*) – English, Javanese and Bahasa Indonesia teachers. In fact, this is difficult to realize since I am one of the trainers at the national level as well, so I frequently go to other provinces, but not Yogyakarta to supervise teachers there. I even did not visit any schools this year because of my busy time.”

Additionally a supervisor in Sleman found it difficult to find time for the interview due to her busy schedule. She acknowledged:

“If I didn’t have other additional jobs like now, I should have been observing the school three hours a month for each school and oversee the supervision of 40 teachers in one semester for all subjects, not just English but also Bahasa Indonesia and Javanese.”

Further evidence of her busy agenda came from an incident in the district office when one of the principals interrupted the interview with the supervisor and said, “Please come to our school to observe and supervise the English teachers”. She responded by saying her schedule was full. Her

next agenda was to supervise and monitor at both district and provincial levels, and, in fact, spent most of the time visiting other provinces as well as visits to Jakarta and Aceh.

A supervisor who was undertaking her doctoral degree at a State University remarked that her job description included assisting the principal to revise the curriculum (herewith they called it *Buku 1* or Book 1) and mentor teachers in designing syllabus and lesson plans (*Buku 2* or Book 2) for all schools managed by MONE and MORA. This seemed to indicate that she was very busy assisting the principals and English teachers at all levels of education (SMP, SMA and SMK) while also being a doctoral student; so, there was no time to assess teachers ‘thoroughly’ due to her limited time. The researcher interviewed her in a break during a seminar conducted by the province.

**Table 4.2: The Educational Qualifications of the Five ‘Selected’ Supervisors**

District Supervisor	Qualification	Area of Study		Experience as Supervisors (Year)	Previous Position
		Bachelor	Master		
S-1	Master	English	English	2	Teacher
S-2	Master	English	Psychology	12	Teacher
S-3	Master	English	Learning Technology	6	Principal
S-4	Master	English	Education Management	3	Teacher
S-5	Bachelor	Mathematics	-	12	Teacher

Based on the interview data, Table 4.2 shows the educational qualifications of the interviewed supervisors of the five districts; they had studied English in their undergraduate studies except for a supervisor with a mathematics qualification. Their master degree was mostly not in English except for one urban supervisor. This indicated that any further educational qualification was not always in English. A further note is as long as one of their educational qualifications was ‘language’, so, the supervisors could supervise Javanese, Bahasa Indonesia and English, according to all the interviewed district supervisors. “An English teacher was assessed or evaluated by a supervisor with Bahasa Indonesia and Javanese qualification”, said the vice principal of CS 11.

Concerning their previous position, most had been teachers except for one supervisor in a rural area who had been a principal and had an English qualification. As the MONE stipulated in regulation No. 12/2007, supervisors for junior high schools are teachers with magister (master) degree in education and bachelor degree of his/her expertise, 8 years’ minimum experience teaching in the subject group (*rumpun*) or principals with four years’ experience in teaching relevant to the subject group. In fact, due to the job description – management and academic supervision – most of them were very hesitant with their supervision tasks. The data regarding supervisors were gained from a senior supervisor in a rural area saying that supervisors had been teachers but never principals, thus they were sometimes ‘reluctant’ to supervise principals because they had had no experience of being principals. Some even avoided supervising principals and preferred to supervise teachers.



Based on the Government Regulation No. 74/2008, supervisors are classified into one of two categories:

1. School management

The main job is to assess and evaluate school management including training and monitoring the eight national standards, particularly management, infrastructure, funding, and personnel standards and school performance assessment.

2. Academic management

The job description of this supervision focuses on graduate competency, content, process and assessment standards reached by teachers.

With such categories of job responsibility, supervisors who had had experience as principals felt confident in supervising principals regarding school management with the focus on management, infrastructure, funding and personnel standards. Supervisors with teaching experience focused on process, content and assessment standards. In other words, most supervisors found difficulty in covering both areas of supervision (school and academic management) due to their ‘hesitancy’. Some supervisors classified as academic managers were ‘reluctant’ to supervise as they had no experience with such national education standards. They felt confident only to supervise process, content and assessment standards. However, in districts which had a lack of supervisors such as Kulonprogo, Sleman, Gunungkidul and Bantul, most supervisors felt confident to do both management and academic supervision though they had insufficient knowledge and experience to supervise both principals and teachers. This kind of practice had been in operation since 2008. This situation had arisen due to ‘unclear’ policy regarding the job description of supervisors, whether they supervised principals or teachers or even both.

Besides the limited number of district supervisors, the second problem was their educational background. Of the twelve case studies, the supervisors’ educational background varied. Some had English qualifications (CS 1, CS 2, CS 4) but most were in the Bahasa Indonesia or Javanese language (CS 5, CS 6, CS 7, CS 8, CS 9, CS 10, CS 11). Because of this ‘partial’ mismatch in backgrounds, English teachers found difficulty understanding the teachers’ strengths and weaknesses. Also, some supervisors with an Indonesian or Javanese language qualification had insufficient knowledge of English teaching methodology. Most supervisors simply checked the teachers’ documentation such as syllabus and lesson plan. “We write lesson plans as the supervisor asked us such as the teaching stages should be EEC, then we changed the terms from PPP to EEC”, said the senior teacher of CS 3. The junior teacher in CS 6 noted, “I once had been observed by the supervisor from the district, with no English background. I made extra preparation by asking my



colleague what and how to do it. Surprisingly the supervisor said I have a good teaching methodology in class”.

The data show that supervisors seemed to assess teachers, not to supervise. When supervision occurred, for example, they paid attention to the ‘surface’ of the documentation of syllabus and lesson plans, such as the words or terminology used. Though district supervisors had an important role in this decentralized system as the persons to guide the schools to achieve at a high level achievement by assessing and supervising teachers, however, it was difficult to realize due to the small number of supervisors, the ‘mismatch’ in educational qualifications and their workload and the most important one is their capacity in English language teaching.

#### **4.2.1 The District Supervisors: The Perceptions from the Schools**

Teachers were loud in their complaints about supervisors. Their ‘hectic agenda’, the limited number of supervisors and the educational mismatch were the cause of most complaints. Basically, a supervisor visited a school when the school ‘revised’ its curriculum or when teachers were undergoing their certification. The assessment instrument for the supervisor was provided by the government and it was all done in numeric terms, with no explanation indicating teachers’ strengths and weaknesses. The indicators in the assessment were nearly the same as the assessment done by principals which was provided as well by the government. The following excerpts are teachers’ perceptions regarding supervisors,

**CS 1:** “The district office supervision at this school occurs only very rarely, because the number of supervisors is insufficient for the number of schools” (English senior teacher).

**CS 2:** “The supervisor observes teaching and learning (teachers’ assessment) only once every six months” (English senior teacher).

**CS 3:** “Teaching assessment is done by a supervisor from the District Education Office; however, this observation schedule is unclear for teachers. It might happen once or twice in a year or not at all; the assessment from the foundation happens only when there is teachers’ promotion” (English senior teacher).

**CS 4:** “The supervisor comes here only to meet the principal” (English senior teacher). The vice principal noted, “Teachers write a lesson plan for the sake of administration. When the supervisor comes to our school, they will be happy; they do not know whether the lesson plan is really implemented or not. The policy is more top-down, and never bottom up”. Added to this, the vice

principal clearly asked the researcher not to disseminate the school's curriculum documentation because he did not want the school curriculum documentation copied by other schools. "I wrote the curriculum myself and many schools asked me to copy it because they believe this school's curriculum documentation was good, particularly as a pilot international standard school curriculum", the vice principal noted.

**CS 5:** "Teachers are assessed when they are about to participate in a certification program" (English senior teacher). A junior English teacher remarked, "I write a lesson plan when there is an observation from the district and it happens very rarely, once or not at all in a year".

**CS 6:** "Observation has occurred only once since I first began teaching in 2005; surprisingly the supervisor concluded that I have a good teaching methodology in class. I was really surprised with the feedback" (junior English teacher). The vice principal said that supervisors under MORA were those who visited the schools and observed teachers at random even though they had inadequate knowledge of each subject. These supervisors visited the schools very rarely and they observed teachers for the sake of the teacher certification program.

**CS 7:** "We are observed normally once every six months by some district supervisors whether English or otherwise. In other words, it could be an English teacher would be observed by a supervisor with a mathematics background or the reverse" (senior English teacher).

**CS 8:** "The supervision of teachers here is done by the supervisors of the district under the Ministry of Religious Affairs (*Majelis Pendidikan Dasar dan Menengah – Mapenda*) and they sometimes have different educational backgrounds. 'The supervision' occurs once a month. The supervisors in this case just move around and observe from outside the classroom through the window for a very short time. They have never given any feedback to teachers" (principal).

**CS 9:** "They come here once a semester and randomly observe us. We were observed by supervisors with no background in English, and as usual we get confused because we need to write a lesson plan that accords with what they want" (senior and junior English teachers).

**CS 10:** "The district supervisor observes teaching and learning (teachers' assessment) only once every six months, perhaps longer and this kind of supervision is more on administration such as monthly or weekly program, syllabus and lesson plan. If we have those things, the supervisor is happy" (senior English teacher).

**CS 11:** “The supervisors help us revise the curriculum concerning the ‘language’, neither the content nor the teaching process. The attached lesson plans are only the samples, not all, and this is for the sake of documents; even when they observe teachers, their concerns are more on administration or documentation” (vice principal).

**CS 12:** “The district supervisors never conduct any supervision. This might be happening because most teachers are part time and casual teachers” (senior English teacher).

To conclude, due to the limited number of district supervisors as well as the ‘mismatch’ in educational qualification across districts, the supervision system was operating very spasmodically, if at all. In the city, the teachers complained about supervision. When it occurred, it was a discussion between the principal and the supervisor about issues regarding international standard status. In the Catholic school, the teachers were supervised rarely (once in a year) and the supervision from the foundation occurred only at teachers’ promotion time. In urban areas and rural areas, teachers’ perceptions were not positive because supervision occurred rarely, compounded by the mismatch in qualifications.

When teachers’ assessment occurred, it was conducted for the sake of teachers’ undergoing certification and ‘teachers’ academic status’. It seemed to indicate that supervisors’ jobs on the ground was to be ‘an inspector’ rather than a supervisor. The supervision particularly related to teachers’ professional skill in class that was a part of supervisors’ responsibility and was difficult to realize due to the limited number of supervisors and the ‘partial’ mismatch in educational qualifications. So, what happened was as far as the curriculum documentation including the syllabi and lesson plans were in line with what the supervisors wanted, there would be no problem even though classroom observation was never conducted. The vice principal of CS 11 remarked that the supervisor with a Bahasa Indonesia academic qualification revised the choice of words or misspellings of the curriculum documentation before it was signed off by the head of the district education office.

#### **4.2.2 The District Supervisors: Their Perceptions of the Schools**

In interview data from the district supervisors, some points were noted regarding curriculum implementation. The data seemed to indicate that the district supervisor blamed more the incompetence of teachers in ‘revising’ the curriculum and in implementing it in class. The followings are excerpts from five supervisors in the Yogyakarta province,

The district supervisor in an urban area said, “Most schools are still designing their curriculum by copying and pasting.....in the KTSP curriculum, it could be clearly seen what the school wants to

achieve and its own characteristics which are different from one school to another for sure”. This implied that the curriculum development might be similar from one school to another; but each school has its own curriculum in accordance with the particular school’s situation.

In terms of curriculum development, she added, “Both the competence and knowledge of teachers, even principals, are limited about curriculum design; it might be due to the shifting paradigm in which previously the schools were dictated by central government, but currently each school needs to create their own curriculum by looking at the guidelines given by the government”. It seemed to indicate that it was a school’s responsibility to revise the curriculum; in fact, it was the supervisor’s work as well to assist schools.

Concerning curriculum evaluation, the district supervisor in a rural area who was undertaking his second master degree (*Magister Manajemen*) at a state university in Yogyakarta noted, “The KTSP curriculum in this district is mostly ‘copy paste’ from the example given by the government. It can be clearly seen when we read the strengths and weaknesses of the school. They are all similar”. This seemed to indicate that most schools in this district were unable to develop their own curriculum. This could be clearly seen from the content of the curriculum which was similar from year to year. It did not change. The graduate competences that were to be achieved were not seen in its content. “The school is not ‘brave’ enough to explore their own curriculum”, added the supervisor. Further of note was the inadequate capacity of teachers to revise curriculum, syllabus and lesson plans which seemed to be another “copy paste” exercise. The curriculum seemed to be documents for the district education office only. Regarding basic competence, this supervisor added, “The teaching of English seems to be about reading comprehension. And so, when for example there should be a five meeting class (200 minutes), it then becomes two meeting class (80 minutes)” – as a result, the teachers sometimes were able to finish the classroom material in a short space of time. In contrast, the teachers sometimes ‘ignored’ some basic competences that they thought were simple.

The city supervisor clearly blamed the inadequate competency of teachers to revise the curriculum according to their school profile. She said, “Of the eight national education standards, there are four standards that are important to implement in schools – graduate, content, process and assessment standards. But what happens is teachers are too lazy to read the Regulation mandated by the government, particularly the MONE. They do not want to understand what they are about, so they do not understand what and how they teach in class”. She further remarked, “It’s a ‘common’ thing for teachers not to bring their lesson plans though with the notion of the competency-based curriculum, teachers need a well-planned lesson plan. Teaching seems to be routine activities for teachers that do not need a plan”. Due to her limited time to assist teachers, she blamed teachers’

lack of competency in teaching. This city-based supervisor seemed to ‘ignore’ her main duties which was to assist teachers to implement the curriculum in class.

The supervisor in a rural area claimed that the school-based curriculum in her district was mostly adaptation – the learning aims of each subject were created by teachers. However, it was different from what she said,

“Most staff simply copied what is the guidance given by the National Education Standard Agency (*Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan*); the difference among schools is their local content subject and life skills. That is what we call adoption, in other words, all is similar with the example given by the government. In 2013, all schools are expected to have their own (*mandiri*) curriculum showing their own strengths and weaknesses. Regarding the teaching of English, teachers particularly ‘senior ones’ including myself, found it difficult to implement the 2006 curriculum. This happens due to their inadequate competence of English language paradigm and developing teaching material. They rely much on the textbooks rather than creating their own teaching material. As well, they teach without lesson plans.”

She noted also that teachers’ professionalism in her district was low as teachers in general were reluctant to participate in in-service training because they reckoned they had become fully certified (professional). “They participate when there is an in-service training funded by the government (block grant) and they are paid”, she further remarked. This indicated that most teachers according to district supervisors put insufficient attention on their capacity as well as teaching performance in class. In other words, there was lack of commitment for teachers to achieve the targets outlined in the curriculum.

A supervisor with no English qualifications said that when he observed schools, there were three things he did, observation (management, school facilities and classroom), interview and documentation. For classroom observation, due to the limited time, he chose at random four teachers for his classroom observation, that is, one science teacher, one social study teacher, one language (Bahasa Indonesia, English or Javanese) teacher and one mathematics teacher. This district supervisor with 12 years’ experience as supervisor (see Table 4.2) remarked on the lack of facilities, in particular in rural schools in the curriculum implementation. “Schools close to the district office such as pilot international standard schools and national standard schools provide internet access though it is mostly used by teachers teaching the information technology subject. What about the schools in rural areas? I believe that students have never even seen computers”, he noted.

According to the district supervisors, the implementation of the 2006 curriculum on the ground had three types – *adopsi* (adoption), *adaptasi* (adaptation), and *mandiri* (autonomous). Adopting the curriculum implied that the curriculum was still the same one, the change was in the teaching hours of the core subjects and the local content; while adaptating the curriculum was implemented by

schools in which the indicators in the syllabus and lesson plans were added and that related to the school and students' conditions. The district supervisor in the rural areas pointed out that most schools in her area had adapted the curriculum; in fact, based on the interviews with the English teachers, most teachers were still confused about how to develop indicators for their teaching in class and when it happened to be developed, they said it was only for the purpose of curriculum documentation, not for their teaching in class. "The teaching materials are in the textbook", the district supervisor in a rural area said. Teachers relied much on the textbook. Brown's terminology was a 'textbook-driven' curriculum (Brown, 2000, p. 155); and this happened due to teachers' incapability to create their 'own' lesson plans thoroughly, including the teaching materials. Teachers developed their lesson plan according to the textbook rather than basic competence in the curriculum. Added to this, a textbook writer as well as a lecturer in English said that teachers even asked him to write complete lesson plans in his textbook.

When the researcher asked for the curriculum documentation, it seemed to indicate that the curriculum evaluation had not been done annually. It could be seen in their curriculum documentation which was written not in the academic year 2011/2012, but 2009/2010 (CS 1, CS 2, CS 3, CS 9, CS 10, and CS 12). The principal of CS 10 contended, "It takes time and more money if we evaluate the curriculum annually. It's alright to evaluate the curriculum four years later". The vice principal of CS 5 pointed out that the curriculum seemed to be the same one year by year. The difference was on the minimum grade that was supposed to be 7.5, particularly in the core subjects as has been stipulated by the government. The school policy in CS 5 eventually lowered their scores from 7.5 to 6 for English.

Regarding the minimum passing grade, the district supervisors in city, urban and rural areas noted that most schools wrote 7.5 for their minimum grades in the curriculum documentation. "They try to achieve such a score though it is really difficult to realize, so they 'modify' students' grade to reach 7.5", the city senior supervisor said.

All supervisors agreed that school curriculum documentation of most schools in Yogyakarta province was a 'copy paste' exercise. The curriculum documentation that was reviewed and 'assisted' annually by district supervisors eventually was signed off by the head of the district education office, the principal and the school committee representative. Based on the documentation data and the interviews, this curriculum documentation seemed not to be changed except for the passing minimum grade of each subject and extracurricular activities.

Overall, the supervisors' perspectives regarding the curriculum implementation was the school staff inadequate competency. The supervisors seemed to blame the school staff (the principals and

teachers) who had lack of knowledge of ‘developing’ their curriculum which related to schools’ and students’ characteristics. This seemed to be a cyclical blame game. Because of their lack of capacity, curriculum documentation including syllabus and lesson plans tended to be similar as the example given by the government or among schools in the district and the documentation had never been changed since first ‘adopted’.

#### **4.3 Summary**

The Indonesian government stipulates the 8 national standards. The Content and Process Standards have been set up and schools need to adjust their teaching with the characteristics of student and school. Most teachers basically have implemented the 2006 curriculum because district supervisors contended that most schools, including rural areas, were in the phase of ‘adoption’.

Academics also contended that various textbooks had accommodated standard and basic competence stipulated by the government even though teachers need to be selective to make adjustments in line with the characteristics of students and schools.

Curriculum designers noted that most teachers emphasized that their teaching was on linguistic competence because they believed that the national examination was focused on reading and grammatical competence.

Academics had their own views about the implementation of the KTSP curriculum. They highlighted the incapability of district supervisors and principals as well as teachers. Their insufficient knowledge and incapacity in English language proficiency and teaching methodology became another failure of the curriculum implementation. Lack of teachers’ proficiency also drove teachers to depend much on the textbooks and student worksheet.

In this decentralized system, the authority of school management was in the hands of districts. However, districts had limited fund to conduct in-service training. The staff in the provincial quality assurance noted that funds for teachers were in province but each schools competed to get the grants to improve their professional development. He added that projects or programs were good, however, there was no monitoring and evaluating program.

While the district supervisors blamed the inadequate knowledge of the school staff, on the other hand, the school staff (the principals and English language teachers) highlighted the failings of supervision and the in-service training provided by the districts. The assessment was done mostly for the purpose of teacher certification. Not many principals supervised teachers due to their lack of

knowledge or educational qualification. This becomes worse because they sometimes relied much on the district supervisors.

The supervisors, limited in number, seemed not to do their duties properly due to their limited time and competency. In this decentralized system, officials in districts seemed to ‘translate’ the government policy by themselves and this impacted upon different understandings of responsibility among supervisors and school staff. Even worse, there were no standards nor evaluation done by the government to control the quality of supervisors. “It is a common thing to give an ‘envelope’ to the supervisors when they observe our school regardless of what they do”, said a principal in a district. The time availability, limited number of supervisors and the mismatch of educational background of supervisors could be factors of lack of supervision for teachers.

Another view outlined by the district supervisors was the attitude of teachers who were lazy and ignored school curriculum development. The school staff need to be more autonomous though the peoples’ mindset remained ‘stable’. The implementation of the KTSP curriculum seemed to be unsuccessful due to various factors – district supervisors, principals, and English language teachers. Put simply, the district supervisor and school staff seemed not ready for the KTSP curriculum.



## CHAPTER 5

### EVALUATION OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CURRICULUM: THE ROLES AND PERSPECTIVES OF THE PRINCIPALS

The school-based management in junior high schools introduced in 1999 stated that the school curriculum ought to reflect the characteristics of both students and schools. Principals play important and key roles in implementing the school curriculum in order to achieve the standards stipulated by the government. This chapter presents the data concerning the perceptions of principals regarding the implementation of the 2006 curriculum. The first section of the chapter presents the profile of the twelve principals, their teaching experience, leadership style, responsibilities, roles and school culture. As well, a snapshot of vice principal and the perceptions of non-English teachers about the implementation of the curriculum will be included.

#### 5.1 The Twelve School Principals: Their Profile

Teachers who have graduated with a bachelor degree in education and have been teaching for 5 years can be appointed principals along with several other requirements such as maximum age of 56 years (MONE Regulation No. 28/2010). Of the twelve case studies, 42 per cent of the principals were master graduates; only two were female, both with an English language education qualification, including a master's degree (see Table 5.1). Their teaching experience was on average eight years while experience as principals varied from three months to more than ten years even though the regulation stipulates a maximum of two periods (2 x 4 years). Most principals had achieved their eight years' experience in different schools except for CS 7.

**Table 5.1: The Profile of the Principals in the Academic Year 2011/2012**

CS No.	No. of Students	No. of Teachers	Gender	Highest Educational Qualification	Working Period in the School	Teaching & Principal Experience
1	418	36	F	Master of Humanities ( <i>Humaniora</i> )	3 months	27 years
2	432	31	F	Bachelor	11 months	27 years
3	675	29	M	Master of Education	17 months	14 years
4	968	57	M	Master of Education	11 months	13 years
5	586	52	M	Bachelor	3 years	29 years
6	568	43	M	Master of Education	3 years	20 years
7	130	23	M	Master of Ed. Management	8 years	27 years
8	93	38	M	Bachelor	3 years	20 years
9	324	31	M	Bachelor	4 years	34 years
10	150	24	M	Bachelor	1 year	8 years
11	431	38	M	Bachelor	8 months	22 years
12	74	23	M	Bachelor	4 years	42 years

While the Government Regulation No. 74/2008 regarding teachers stipulates that minimum teaching hours for any full-time teacher is 24 with a maximum 40 per week, principals are also

required to teach their minimum six hours. The rest of principals' time would be given to administrative duties or given to other teachers who still need more hours to achieve the minimum 24 hours. The Regulation of MONE No. 28/2010 Article 12 outlines tasks for principals – develop schools based on the eight national education standards as well as their own competence as principals through professional development initiatives both at district and province levels. This implied that principals as leaders have responsibilities to develop schools (internal and external aspects). The internal ones refer to process, content and assessment standards that could be manifested in the graduate competency standard. For this, curriculum, teachers' capacity and assessment are the main aspects to be managed while external ones deal to how principals are able to manage other standards such as personnel standard, infrastructure, management and funding.

Due to such responsibilities, the principals seemed to share with other school staff particularly the internal tasks such as developing the curriculum. In other words, content and process standards were shared with teachers to achieve graduate competency standard while other standards seemed to be the direct responsibilities of principals.

#### **5.1.1 The Leadership of School Principals**

Principals as school leaders have various tasks in achieving the vision, mission and aims of schools that should be in line with what has been stipulated by the government as well as any sponsoring organisation such as a private or religious foundation (*yayasan*). The position is obviously very important, and scholars have used various terms to describe school leadership, such as educational leadership (Codd, 1989; Fullan, 2000; Hodgkinson, 1991; Razik & Swanson, 2000; Sergiovanni, 1992), instructional leadership (Murphy, 1988; Marks and Printy, 2003), and transformational school leadership (Leithwood, 1994; Marks and Printy, 2003).

In terms of instructional leadership, the principal aims for instructional or pedagogical improvement. It implies that an instructional leadership directs and focuses on instructional matters that have a very broad array of concerns. As Fullan (2000) noted, school leadership within instructional leadership became more complex and principals are constrained and found themselves 'locked in with less and less room to manoeuvre' (p. 156). This is a complex task and sometimes shared among stakeholders (Conley & Goldman, 1994; Lee & Dimmock, 1999). Odhiambo and Hii (2012) contend that principals' tasks are to improve academic achievement, particularly through teaching and learning. Based on their research, they identified four key areas of a principal's responsibility,

- (1) evaluating teachers and providing feedback-including classroom observation,
- (2) maintaining a vision for the school's future,

- (3) supplying the adequate resources for teachers to carry out their jobs effectively, and
- (4) improving student achievement

(Odhiambo and Hii, p. 237)

Furthermore, in regard to classroom instruction, they suggest that an effective principal as the leader of school instruction is to evaluate curriculum and instruction and provide instructional feedback. Earlier, Krug (1990) and Parker (1993) had described instructional leadership according to five dimensions – defining and communicating mission; managing curriculum and instruction; supervising or reflecting on teaching; monitoring student progress; and promoting an instructional climate (Table 5.2).

Utilizing another perspective, transformational leadership is conceptualized as reducing bureaucratic control, and building collaboration and teamwork to achieve ‘higher’ common goals that eventually empower staff to share school leadership (Heck, 1992). In this relationship, the principal as leader needs to demonstrate leadership attributes such as idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Marks & Printy, 2003). Scholars such as Leithwood and colleagues have described nine functions of transformational leadership in schools in three areas (Leithwood, 1994; Leithwood et al., 1999). They are:

- (1) mission centered (developing a widely shared vision for the school, building a consensus about school goals and setting priorities),
- (2) performance centered (holding high performance expectations, providing individualized support, supplying intellectual stimulation), and
- (3) culture centered (modelling organizational values, strengthening productive school culture, building collaborative cultures, and creating structures for participation in school decisions).

**Table 5.2: The Principal as Instructional Leader**

<b>What</b>	<b>How</b>
Communicating the mission	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Determine the extent of the match between the current mission and inclusive practices</li> <li>- Examine ways inclusion may reshape the mission</li> <li>- Recognize examples of the mission in daily actions</li> </ul>
Managing curriculum and instruction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Clarify the match between the curriculum, current instructional practices, student needs and legal mandates</li> <li>- Provide materials and supplies needed by faculty members</li> <li>- Discuss flexibility and teacher decision making regarding curriculum and instruction</li> </ul>
Supervising teaching	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Encourage innovation in teaching practices</li> <li>- Promote effective school teams</li> <li>- Include goal setting and self-assessment</li> <li>- Observe programs demonstrating successful inclusion</li> </ul>
Monitoring student progress	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Share assessment results</li> <li>- Explain how assessment is used to improve instruction</li> <li>- Discuss monitoring progress of groups vs individual students</li> </ul>
Promoting an instructional climate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Reinforce learning and achievement for all students</li> <li>- Redeploy staff and time as needed</li> <li>- Monitor access to resources and cocurricular activities for all students</li> </ul>

Source: Krug (1990, 1992)

Day et al. (2002) as quoted in Raihani (2006) conducted research regarding principals in successful schools in England. Based on this study, the International Successful School Principalship Project (ISSPP) was formed around successful school principals in eight countries (Australia, Canada, Denmark, China (Hongkong), England, Norway, Sweden and the USA) and formulated a core set of basic leadership responsibilities, namely: (1) setting direction, including building a shared vision, developing consensus about goals and priorities, and creating high performance expectations, (2) developing people, including providing individualized support, offering intellectual stimulation, and modelling important values and practices, (3) redesigning, including building a collaborative culture, creating and maintaining shared decision-making structures and processes, and building relationships with parents and the wider community.

Gurr et al. (2005) categorized successful principals in Australia into three: (1) innate goodness and passion which was demonstrated through honesty, empathy, and commitment, (2) equity which was manifested by being open and flexible to other's opinions, and (3) other-centred which makes principals promote distributed leadership. In the Indonesian context, Raihani (2006) studied the value driven school leadership of three successful principals in senior high schools in Yogyakarta, Indonesia. The driving values were *Amanah* (an entrusted task), *Imtaq* (faith and piety), *Uswah Hasanah* (good role model), openness, transparency, centrality of students, trust, care, collegiality, respectfulness, togetherness, and Javanese values. Trust was put as an important feature of the principals' leadership.

Accordingly, with the notion of school-based management as part of the decentralization policy, Indonesian principals work together with staff as well as 'empowering' local education councils (*dewan pendidikan*) and school committees (*komite sekolah*). This management strategy gives the school its own authority to be in charge of the education process. Though the decentralisation was launched as long ago as 1999, based on the interviews with the principals and English teachers in this study, school-based management was claimed to being practiced in the twelve case studies together with the 2004 competency-based curriculum. "We implemented school-based management though there are still weaknesses here and there such as the inadequate knowledge of the staff and limited infrastructure," remarked one principal (CS 1). "The principal is someone to be responsible in implementing the school-based curriculum together with school-based management", added another principal (CS 3). It seemed to indicate that this management system was designed to respond to the 2003 Education Law and Government Regulation (No. 19/2005) regarding the eight national education standards and the principals had inadequate knowledge what school-based management is in relation to the education standards and seemed to focus on the facilities and personnel standards that were still 'poor'.

Of the twelve case studies, the researcher found that in the schools in Yogyakarta province, principals seemed to share their leadership with their vice principals and delegate responsibilities. The ‘shared’ leadership was implemented in regard to curriculum revision (development); however, for external activities such as meetings (seminars and workshops) in the district and province regarding school-based management and other issues in regard to school development, the principals would participate. This was seen in principals’ responses when the researcher asked permission to do the research. “If you come here due to the school curriculum, you talk to the first vice principal. His job is dealing with the curriculum. Come next week and ask the administration staff to see the vice principal”, responded a city-based international school principal (CS 4). A rural school (CS 9) principal clearly said, “I have a workshop for a couple of days starting this early morning, so you had better talk to our senior English teachers regarding our English language program”. An English senior teacher in an ‘isolated’ Islamic-based school (CS 10) remarked that the principal was not always at school. He often participated in workshops or seminars for several days, even a week either at district or provincial level.

In brief, delegation of principals’ responsibility to vice principals, in general, occurred in almost every school in the twelve case studies. The efforts of the principals to develop both the internal and external aspects of schools were more focused on the external ones. The development of internal aspects such as developing standard competence and basic competence seemed to be the teachers’ responsibility that was coordinated by the vice principal. The principals’ responsibility in the school documentation was as *‘penanggung jawab’* which meant they were the most responsible for curriculum implementation but within unclear responsibilities of what and how to be responsible for the whole content of the KTSP curriculum.

In terms of the eight national education standards, the principals paid little attention to both content and process standards that focus on the curriculum as well as the teaching learning process. According to one of the provincial quality assurance personnel, the government launched a two year project in 2010 to improve principal capacity, particularly instructional leadership across provinces in Indonesia as well as district supervisors focusing on their academic supervision. He further noted that the government had subsequently launched new projects, however, there was no further such ‘monitoring and evaluating’ program. He said, “... whatever the program designed by the government is always good but there is neither an evaluating nor monitoring program, so it is difficult for us to understand whether they already implement it or not”.

### 5.1.2 Responsibilities of School Principals in Relation to the KTSP Curriculum

The MONE Regulation No. 13/2007 mentions five competencies required of principals – personal, managerial, entrepreneurial, supervisory and social. These competencies cover internal and external issues within the schools. In terms of internal issues, Kleina-Kracht (1993) uses the term ‘indirect leadership’ to describe their roles in facilitating ‘teacher leadership’ as opposed to working directly on curriculum tasks or projects. Glickman (1989) argues that a principal should be the leader of teachers as curriculum leaders rather than as the sole curriculum leader. Lofthouse et al. (1995) contend that curriculum management is a collaborative activity, and not simply the remit of identified individuals within the formal management structure. Furthermore, Conley and Goldman (1994) note that a principal is a facilitative leader concerning school restructuring and building staff instructional and leadership capabilities. As well, Krug (1990, 1992) outlines how the principal is an instructional leader (see Table 5.2) to gain good school development.

However, the principals in the twelve case studies seemed to have developed similar leadership patterns across the twelve case studies, that is, the external responsibilities belong to principals while internal ones were delegated to vice principals. For internal issues, West-Burnham (1996) argues that principals are curriculum leaders while subject coordinators act as managers. This implies that the principals keep ensuring the aims of the school are achieved by their full support and guidance. However, most cases revealed that principals focused on external relations rather than the internal dynamics, and subject coordinators or senior teachers become ‘syllabus and lesson plan’ developers. This documentation had already been devised by the districts. Most subject coordinators ‘copy-pasted’ their syllabus and lesson plans. This situation might have been caused by ‘pressure’ from the central government (through the district supervisors), lack of training or little practical application, the inadequate capacity of teachers or sheer lack of time.

In the 2006 curriculum which deals with content and process standards stipulated by the government, the principals are designated as ‘curriculum leaders’. In fact, what happened in these twelve schools was rather different. As already mentioned, the vice principals were encouraged to be leaders of curriculum evaluation in the school. The principals ‘revised and developed’ the school curriculum in a team consisting of the vice principal(s) together with school staff. The principal of the Catholic international pilot school who had participated in various seminars regarding school-based management remarked that the principal’s responsibility was dealing with ‘administrative responsibilities’; the specific responsibility regarding the school curriculum would be in the hands of the vice principal and teachers. “At the beginning of each year, there was always a meeting (*rapat kerja tahunan*) of all staff regarding any preparation for the curriculum, syllabus and lesson plan. At that time the principal directed the target of the curriculum for that year such as

the minimum grade,” said the principal CS 3; the vice principal in CS 5 mentioned that his job description was to manage teaching hours and daily school timetables, the academic calendar, the schedule of various panel subjects teachers at school and to evaluate the students’ input and output in reviewing the next school program. Additionally a noteworthy insight came from the vice principal of CS 4 regarding the curriculum,

“The curriculum is a ‘package’ from Jakarta – central government, we are here just to translate what has been stipulated such as in the process standard, the teachers should teach 24 hours in class per week, so we ask teachers to work 24 hours in the form of the principal’s decree in that semester; and this is not a simple job for the principal and the teachers. The teachers, for example, need to teach in other schools to achieve their 24 hours as the basic teaching hours for the teacher certification program. As a result, they teach in two or three different schools that impacts eventually on their teaching performance in class. Another change is, for example, on the government rules that should be written into the curriculum document.”

Based on a content analysis of the school curriculum documents, it seemed to indicate the curriculum was quite similar to the exemplar curriculum devised by the government, including the format. The principals saw themselves as ‘directors’ and ‘facilitators’ in terms of curriculum improvement. The principal of CS 2 with more than ten years’ experience in different schools clearly noted that her duties were to conduct the general briefing and to facilitate the team revising the curriculum. The vice principal CS 4 said, “The competency standard and basic competence are all provided by Jakarta, so more top down, including the examples of syllabus and lesson plan.”

Regarding curriculum revision, training for principals or vice principals for the purpose of curriculum revision was provided by the district through provincial and district workshops whereas teachers were ‘trained’ by district supervisors or a district panel of subject teachers. After attending workshops, the vice principals shared the information with all teachers regarding the changes to the curriculum and asked teachers to write changes in the form of syllabus and lesson plans. “In 2010, for example, the government stipulated character building and moral values to be inserted into the curriculum, syllabus and lesson plans clearly. So, the teachers had to clearly mention character building and moral values in their lesson plans. But, it’s for ‘administrative’ purposes only. In the classroom, whatever (sic), because the district asks for the administration details”, noted the vice principal of CS 4. This implied that school staff including principals did some ‘window dressing’, meaning curriculum documentation was good in the form of the required document but actual implementation in class was another matter. Similar happenings were mentioned by other principals and school staff (English teachers) in every other school.

A contrasting situation, however, occurred in one private rural Islamic school (CS 10). The principal revised the curriculum together with one of the administration staff. “He helped me in typing the school curriculum”, said the principal (CS 10). It might have happened because the

school was small, had no vice principal and almost all teachers worked part-time. A very different situation existed in another very small private rural school (CS 12) in which the principal ‘copy pasted’ the school curriculum from another school. This could be seen from the documentation itself and there was no soft copy nor other documents such as minutes of meetings.

To revise the curriculum, the principals usually formed a team led by the vice principal as the person who dealt with the school curriculum. This team consisted of teachers led by the vice principal (*wakasek*). The team sometimes had insufficient knowledge about the curriculum itself. A senior teacher in CS 2, for example, acknowledged that the principal sometimes recruited incompetent teachers regarding curriculum evaluation. “My task is to prepare snacks and food for the meeting as well as submit the syllabus together with lesson plans for the curriculum attachment”.

An interesting note regarding curriculum was a curriculum combination between vision mission stipulated by the government as well as by its foundation or ‘*misi pondok*’. In this Islamic boarding school (CS 8) the curriculum was based on both mission that impacted on students’ academic achievement and religion that according to the principal was too hard to achieve. As a result, graduates seemed to be ‘in between’, low in academic achievement (indicated by the results of the national examination) and unable to achieve the mission set by its religious foundation, that is, to raise a faithful and knowledgeable generation who strive to spread the message sincerely. The principal further said,

“Other *Pondoks* do not care about the government stipulation such as ignorance of participating in the national examination, like some *pondoks* in Jawa Timur. If we implement such a system in Yogyakarta, I don’t think students will go to this school.”

Another, the principal in CS 10, said that he did not evaluate the curriculum annually due to the limited budget and staff capacity; thus, he reviewed the curriculum together with one of the administration staff who was good with computers. This was confirmed by the English teacher saying that she herself did not know about the curriculum. “The principal reviewed it with the administration staff. I’m not so sure about the content of the curriculum, even if I got syllabus and lesson plan from my friend teaching in the government school; there was no workshop or seminar regarding this school based curriculum for teachers here,” she remarked (CS 10).

Accordingly, in the district education office, these syllabuses and lesson plans were devised by the panel of subject teachers in workshops for ‘representative teachers’. The principal nominated teachers to participate in a seminar or workshop held once a month by the district education office, though most teachers contended they normally participated only once or twice in a semester due to



their busy time and roster meeting. “We sent teachers to seminars or workshops though sometimes by taking from students’ learning time,” said most principals. The results of the workshops then were sometimes shared with other teachers at the school informally.

The content and process standards are based on the 2003 Education Law concerning the national education system, the MONE Regulation No. 22/2006 and 41/2007, stating that the curriculum for junior high schools is 32 teaching hours per week (Table 5.3). In fact, due to the school-based curriculum, most schools ‘revised’ and eventually had at least 43 teaching hours, delivered over six days, consisting of 10 prescribed subjects, together with local content and self development classes.

**Table 5.3: Mandated Subject Profile for Junior High Schools**

Components	Year and Time Allocation (Hours)		
	VII	VIII	IX
<b>A. Compulsory subjects</b>			
1. Religion ( <i>Agama</i> )	2	2	2
2. Civics Education ( <i>Pendidikan Kewarganegaraan</i> )	2	2	2
3. Bahasa Indonesia	4	4	4
4. English ( <i>Bahasa Inggris</i> )	4	4	4
5. Mathematics ( <i>Matematika</i> )	4	4	4
6. Natural Science ( <i>Ilmu Pengetahuan Alam</i> )	4	4	4
7. Social Science ( <i>Ilmu Pengetahuan Sosial</i> )	4	4	4
8. Sports Education ( <i>Pendidikan Jasmani dan Olahraga</i> )	2	2	2
9. Art and Culture ( <i>Seni Budaya</i> )	2	2	2
10. Skills ( <i>Ketrampilan/Kejuruan</i> )	2	2	2
<b>B. Local Content</b>	2	2	2
<b>C. Self Development Subject (<i>Pengembangan Diri</i>)*</b>	2	2	2
<b>Total</b>	32	32	32

\*extracurricular activities

The core subjects - Bahasa Indonesia, English, mathematics, science and social studies – had more teaching hours; this was because of the national examinations though social studies was not one of the subjects examined. Table 5.4 shows the teaching hours profile except for the self development subject due to its variety. Based on the data, the aim of teaching according to the views of the principals and English teachers was to pass national examinations, as the schools tried hard to achieve higher scores. It was not only in terms of adding more teaching hours for the four subjects, but also giving extra classes after school which happened in all schools except for the isolated CS 12 due to the limited number of teachers. “The pressure from the central government is how to gain high scores for the national examination”, contended most principals and English teachers. Those extra classes after school were funded mostly by parents. Only rural school (CS 9) budgeted the extra classes from the school operational fund (*Bantuan Operasional Sekolah* – BOS).

The religion subject was taught normally for two or three hours in most schools or approximately 6 per cent of the teaching time per week in CS 1, CS 3, CS 4, CS 5, CS 7, CS 9, CS 11 and CS 12.

However, in Islamic-based schools such as CS 2, CS 6, CS 8 and CS 10, the religion subject with the discussion of the Qur'an and Hadith as well as Arabic took seven to ten hours within a total range of 45–47 hours or 20 per cent per week. This was to the detriment of the core subjects (see Table 5.4); also, it meant that the four schools had more hours except for an urban Islamic school (CS 6). A senior teacher in CS 2 contended that the Year Nine students were at school from 6.30 a.m. to 05.00 p.m., twice or three times a week.

The Catholic school in contrast only devoted two hours for religion out of 40 teaching hours or 5 per cent. More teaching hours were devoted to the four core subjects which ranged from four to six teaching hours. While the local content subject was two to four hours in most schools, the Islamic boarding school (CS 8) had an extraordinary eight hours, two for Javanese and six hours for the Islamic arts and Arabic proverbs and wise sayings in addition to religion. In this school, 16 hours were devoted to Islamic and Arabic content, representing one third of the available time of 47 teaching hours, the highest of any school. In brief, the four Islamic-based schools had more extra teaching hours (45–47) except for a government madrasah (CS 6). Added to this, almost all schools also conducted extra classes after school hours.

**Table 5.4: Teaching Hours of Subjects in the Academic Year 2011/2012 of the 12 CS**

Components	Case Study School													Range	Average
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12			
Pre-requisite subjects															
1. Religion ( <i>Agama</i> )	3	7	2	2	3	10	3	10	2	7	2	2	2 – 10	4.4	
2. Civics Education ( <i>Pendidikan Kewarganegaraan</i> )	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2 – 2	2.0	
3. Bahasa Indonesia	5	5	4	6	5	4	6	4	5	4	5	6	4 – 6	4.9	
4. English ( <i>Bahasa Inggris</i> )	6	6	5	5.7	6	4	6	4	6	4	4.7	5	4 – 6	5.2	
5. Mathematics ( <i>Matematika</i> )	6	6	6	6	6	4	6	6	6	6	6	6	4 – 6	5.8	
6. Natural Science ( <i>Ilmu Pengetahuan Alam</i> )	6	6	6	6	6	4	6	5	6	5	6	4	4 – 6	5.5	
7. Social Science ( <i>Ilmu Pengetahuan Sosial</i> )	5	5	5	5	6	4	6	4	4	5	5	6	4 – 6	5.0	
8. Sports Education ( <i>Pendidikan Jasmani dan Olahraga</i> )	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2 – 2	2.0	
9. Art and Culture ( <i>Seni Budaya</i> )	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	0	2	2	2	2	2 – 2	2.0	
10. Skills ( <i>Ketrampilan/Kejuruan</i> )	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	4	2	2	2 – 4	2.2	
A. Local Content	4	4	4	4	4	2	3	8	4	4	5	6	2 – 8	4.3	
B. Self Development Subject ( <i>Pengembangan Diri</i> )*	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	0	0 – 2	1.7	
Total	43	47	40	43.7	44	40	44	47	41	45	41.7	43	40 – 47	43.3	

\*extracurricular activities not counted as class time hour

Concerning 'the improvement or revision' of the curriculum, almost all principals noted three issues, that is, teaching hours especially for the core subjects, minimum passing grade and the selection of the local content, including its time allocation. The new female CS 1 principal clearly said that the curriculum improvement was about the minimum passing grade of each subject, particularly the core subjects, as well as the self development subjects which were in line with the school characteristics and the availability of teachers.

Regarding the minimum passing grades, each school set its own grades which were decided at the beginning of each semester or each year when ‘evaluating or revising’ the curriculum. The CS 1 principal noted, “We have stated the general points in the curriculum such as the minimum grade for each subject. English for example is 7.5 that accords to what the government requires”. However, for other schools it was difficult to maintain 7.5 for English. “We previously had an average 7 but now it became 6.3”, said the CS 5 vice principal. In contrast, the schools in the city (CS 3 and CS 4) required more than 8 as the minimum grade for all subjects. In brief, the minimum grade for each school depended on the performances of previous students, and students’ previous achievement, and it could be raised or lowered compared to the previous year.

The female principal (CS 1) was very confident saying that the students’ minimum grade for the core subjects, particularly English, was 7.5 stipulated by the Government. In fact, a district supervisor with an English language qualification noted that it was very difficult for schools to reach 7.5 unless teachers in the school marked up students’ test results. This seemed to indicate that schools tried to manipulate students’ grades in order to be categorized as a national standard school which required their students to have at least 7.5 for the passing grade of the core subjects.

Additionally, another revision regarding the curriculum was the self-development subject. The CS 1 principal clearly said, “the ‘revision’ of the curriculum is for students’ self-development such as batik painting, playing traditional Javanese music (band), and story telling.”

Such ‘revision’ was also confirmed by the vice principal of an international standard school. The phrase used by the vice principal CS 4 as the ‘Jakarta package’ was, in fact, done by schools. “Competency standards and basic competences are all mandated by Jakarta. The change done by the schools, in general, is the minimum grade for all subjects, self development subjects and local content such as the vernacular language taught (Javanese) and domestic science and/or accounting,” he remarked.

The twelve school curriculum documents seemed to indicate that most principals had lack of knowledge about the ‘curriculum improvement or revision’ nor the local content. Their capacity seemed to indicate that local content meant the vernacular language (Javanese). This perhaps was in line with the 1999 Law regarding decentralism. The 2003 Education Law, Articles 37 and 38, Government Regulation No. 19/2005, concerning national education standard, states that local content is chosen by the school, one for one semester or equal to two teaching hours, which accords to the ‘district characteristics’. However, all schools taught Javanese with a combination of Javanese and domestic science (seven schools) being the most popular. Only two schools (CS 3 and CS 4) offered accounting, not bothering with domestic science. As well, the school foundation

subject (*kemuhammadiyah-an*, *ketamansiswaan*, *ke-Pagudiluhur-an*, and *ke-PGRI-an*) was also selected by private schools.

From the data contained in the interviews and documentation, it was clear that when schools used the terminology of ‘evaluating’ or ‘revising’ or ‘developing’ the curriculum, they essentially were concerned about three issues: (1) the minimum grade for passing, (2) the schools’ choice of the self-development subject, and (3) the choice of local content subjects such as the vernacular language taught (Javanese) and domestic science, accounting or the school foundation subject. The notion of ‘district characteristics’ stated in the curriculum guidelines stipulated by the government seemed to basically indicate the local vernacular language (see Table 5.5).

**Table 5.5: Local Content Subjects in Twelve Case Study Schools**

CS No	Local Content Subject	Teaching Hours	Grade
1	1. Javanese	2	7 – 9
	2. Domestic science	2	7 – 9
2	1. Javanese	2	7 – 9
	2. Domestic science	2	7 – 9
3	1. Javanese	2	7 – 9
	2. Accounting	2	7 – 9
4	*1. Javanese	2	8 – 9
	2. Accounting	2	8 – 9
	**1. Javanese	2	7 – 9
	2. Traditional dancing	2	8 – 9
	3. Batik	2	7
5	1. Javanese	2	7 – 9
	2. Domestic science	2	7 – 9
6	1. Javanese	2	7 – 9
	2. Domestic science	2	7 – 9
7	Javanese	2	7 – 9
8	1. Javanese	2	7 – 9
	2. <i>Khot</i> (calligraphy)	2	7 – 8
	3. <i>Mahfudzot</i> (proverbs)	2	7 – 9
	4. <i>Mutholaah</i> (vocabulary)	2	7 – 9
9	1. Javanese	2	7 – 9
	2. Domestic science (females) and wood carving (males)	2	7 – 9
10	1. Javanese	2	7 – 9
	2. <i>Elektronika</i> (Basic electricity knowledge)	2	7 – 9
11	1. Javanese	2	7 – 9
	2. Domestic science	1	7
	3. Batik	2	7 – 9
12	1. Javanese	2	7 – 9
	2. Domestic science	2	7 – 9

\*regular class

\*\*international class

Having finished with the ‘improved’ curriculum done by a team formed by the principal, the local education council (represented by the district supervisor) and the representative from the school committee came to ‘rubberstamp’ the minimally revised curriculum. “When the actual curriculum revision had been done by the school team, the district education office supervisor and the parental representative (school committee) were invited to rubberstamp it,” said one principal (CS 1). In

addition, the vice principal of CS 11 remarked, “The district education office supervisor usually helps us on the language and punctuation, not the content, before being signed by the head of the district education office.” Additionally, two supervisors from different districts acknowledged, “Most schools had a copy paste curriculum because they had no idea how to develop it to be in line with the school characteristics; they have inadequate capacity in curriculum development.” From this, it could be seen that the principals and the district supervisors had poor communication regarding curriculum development. A national curriculum designer remarked that the teachers were not ‘born’ to be curriculum developers. Curriculum development was not the teachers’ responsibility because their focus was on the teaching techniques to achieve the targets highlighted in the school curriculum. One vice principal (CS 4) noted, “it’s been like this for decades that the school system was devised by the central government; when it’s now school-based management, it becomes stuck (school staff do not know what and how to implement it) even though such management has a larger community involved through the empowerment of local education councils (*dewan pendidikan*) and school committees (*komite sekolah*)”.

In CS 10 the curriculum evaluation had happened only once since 2006 when various stakeholders such as the district supervisor, the quality assurance personnel from the province and the school committee representative had been invited. “We invited them once only in 2006 because if it’s done annually we don’t have enough money to support it. We do not ask students to pay school fees and everything goes to the school operational fund (BOS); and no budget goes to curriculum evaluation. We revised the curriculum only once together with the district supervisor who has a Javanese subject background; after that we had a teacher meeting to make a syllabus and the lesson plans per group (*serumpun*). We just need three examples of lesson plans to be attached to the curriculum”, remarked one vice principal (CS 10).

The curriculum revision should have been revised annually before the academic year begins and that happens normally in July each year. Based on the observation, some schools revised and documented the curriculum annually whereas some were still in their ‘old’ curriculum made for example two to four years previously. Their reasons were due to insignificant revision of the previous curriculum, so they just simply changed the year on the cover of the documentation. An incident occurred in CS 12. When the researcher asked for the document, the principal remarked that the school accreditation was B (good), so all the data and documents were good according to him. When the researcher eventually obtained the KTSP curriculum from the principal by paying about AUD \$ 20, she read it through thoroughly, and it seemed to indicate that the curriculum might belong to other schools and the documentation was written 2009. “I participated in a seminar in 2007; since then, our school has changed the curriculum, once only”, said the principal in CS 12 with 33 years’ experience being a principal and 44 years’ teaching experience. The school

curriculum documentation could be described as a ‘shambles’, for example, (1) the extra curricular activities which were supposed to be done according to the document after school days, Monday to Saturday, when in fact, nothing happened, (2) the strengths and weaknesses of the school were not clearly mentioned nor correct, (3) there was no page numbering, (4) there was handwritten notation to correct the document and (5) the attachments were very simple (there were neither syllabus nor lesson plans attached).

In brief, the principals seemed to ‘rubberstamp’ the school curriculum before the head of the district education office signed off. This ‘practice’ was commonly done by schools and the school staff believed that they had already revised or developed their school curriculum. Also, it indicated that the school-based curriculum or *Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan* seemed not to reflect the characteristics of schools and students due to the ‘copy paste’ practices.

### **5.1.3 The Role of Principals in Curriculum and Performance Management**

As has been touched upon before, the principals are responsible for achieving the aims of the school as well as to improve teaching quality. One of the responsibilities regards teachers’ professionalism. Principals are the supervisors of the teachers though such rarely happened due to time constraints. Most principals delegated work to vice principals; and, to improve teachers’ professionalism, they normally sent teachers to seminars or workshops conducted by the province or the districts, sometimes by taking students’ learning time. The teachers in turn participated in such training though they felt that such activities did not contribute positively to their way of teaching in class. “We are sent by our principal to join the training sessions conducted by the province or district though we need to take students’ learning time. Most training is not applicable to students’ characteristics, so that is only for our understanding in regards to English language teaching,” remarked a senior teacher (CS 1). In terms of the panel of subject teachers at school level, the formal or informal meetings rarely happened due to their busy schedule. There was not a clear scheduling of teachers’ meetings regarding further information about the curriculum, syllabus or lesson plans. This simply indicated that the knowledge from training sessions seemed not to be disseminated at school level.

Regarding training conducted by the district education office, some principals and English teachers contended that it rarely happened in their district because of various factors. The first factor might be teachers’ time and the place where training took place. Teachers in rural areas, for example, did not know whether there were such activities in their districts. They said,

“There is no invitation to our school from the district’ (CS 5); The training is only for those teaching grade nine to face the national examination (CS 6); There has been no seminar or

workshop since 2008 (CS 7); There is no invitation letter, the district perhaps do not know about our school due to the distance and difficult access to our school (CS 10 and 12).”

This indicated that raising teachers’ professionalism was not an overriding concern. As long as teachers submitted their syllabus and lesson plans and then attached them to the curriculum document, there would be no problem. The teachers did not even bring their lesson plans to class; and there was no class observation by the principals.

In regard to supervision, the principals had their individual methods. They mostly had unscheduled assessment and class observation. This varied and there were no fixed indicators for each school. The indicators they used were provided by the government for teacher certification assessment purposes. They simply signed teachers’ lesson plans but they did not observe the class to check whether the lesson plans teachers made were in line with what actually happened in the classroom. This kind of supervision happened only once during a semester or a year with the assessment format given by the government (Table 5.6). Some principals shared the supervision tasks with senior teachers under the similar subject group, such as English, Bahasa Indonesia and Javanese. So, senior teachers of Bahasa Indonesia observed English or Javanese and vice versa. This supervision occurred in CS 1, CS 5, and CS 11 and was mostly done once a semester. The principals in CS 1, CS 5, and CS 11 then asked for the result of the peer observation by senior teachers. The teachers who were eager to know their result sometimes asked the senior teachers about their teaching techniques in class. In brief, the assessment done by principals was generally in numeric form and rarely happened. However, there were other principals who never conducted any assessment except for the purpose of teacher certification. They relied on the district supervisor assessment who visited the schools once or twice in a year. The MONE Regulation No. 19/2007 and No. 15/2010 stipulated that teacher supervision is to be regularly and continuously done by the principal (twice in one semester) and district supervisor (once in each month). The two vice principals (CS 6 and CS 8) remarked that teacher assessment was the job of supervisors in the district under MORA but it happened rarely. “The last observation was done over two years ago and the supervisor observed teachers who nominated to participate in teacher certification”. The English teachers CS 6 noted,

“There was no principal’s assessment. The teachers here do what they can do through reflection. We make lesson plans only for the sake of certification, in one night. When we are observed by the district supervisor, we would teach with a well planned lesson plan. The principal never touched our lesson plans, particularly class observation. The principal checked administratively, just simply signed, never read, even we do believe that both principals and district supervisor did not understand what genre based for English language means.”

“Since I first began teaching in 2005, I made extra preparation by asking my colleague what and how to do it. The district supervisor said that I taught well. I was surprised and do believe that the supervisor is not from an English language background.”



The data indicated that the CS 5 principal who had received an award as the best principal of a madrasah in the district did not assess teachers' performance in class. This indicated 'ignorance' of his responsibility to encourage teachers to be more professional. Some flawed assessment was done by principals. The principals (CS 1, CS 5, and CS 10) shared this task with senior teachers who sometimes had no English language background. An English teacher in CS 8 noted "I've never been observed by the principal. He sometimes just sees what happens from outside the class. If the class is noisy, then he calls and asks me straightaway". A different assessment practice occurred in CS 11 where the principal supervised teachers through a lesson study though the junior teacher said that the lesson study was awkward, the teachers seemed sometimes confused what to do next and always looked at the planning. "This sometimes does not look natural and is uninteresting", said the junior teacher of CS 11.

**Table 5.6: Government Teacher Certification: Assessment Instrument**

No	Indicators	Score
I	PRE-TEACHING	
1	Condition students to learn	1 2 3 4 5
2	Engage students in learning	1 2 3 4 5
II	WHILE-TEACHING	
<b>A</b>	<b>Mastery of learning material</b>	
3	Explain targeted competence	1 2 3 4 5
4	Connect learning material with other relevant knowledge	1 2 3 4 5
5	Deliver learning material clearly	1 2 3 4 5
6	Link learning material to real life	1 2 3 4 5
<b>B</b>	<b>Learning strategy and approach</b>	
7	Apply learning method to meet the targeted competence as well as students' characteristics	1 2 3 4 5
8	Apply the sequential learning strategies	1 2 3 4 5
9	Control the class	1 2 3 4 5
10	Apply contextual teaching and learning	1 2 3 4 5
11	Create a positive learning experience	1 2 3 4 5
12	Conduct learning process as time allocated	1 2 3 4 5
<b>C</b>	<b>Referencing and teaching media</b>	
13	Use teaching media effectively and efficiently	1 2 3 4 5
14	Create meaningful learning experience	1 2 3 4 5
15	Engage students in utilizing teaching media	1 2 3 4 5
<b>D</b>	<b>Engaging and encouraging student involvement</b>	
16	Encourage student participation	1 2 3 4 5
17	Allow openness toward student response	1 2 3 4 5
18	Create motivating learning experience	1 2 3 4 5
<b>E</b>	<b>Learning assessment</b>	
19	Monitor student progress	1 2 3 4 5
20	Conduct final assessment to meet the targeted competency (aim)	1 2 3 4 5
<b>F</b>	<b>Language use</b>	
21	Use the verbal and written language fluently and accurately	1 2 3 4 5
22	Communicate fluently and accurately	1 2 3 4 5
III	POST-TEACHING	
23	Involve students in reflecting and summarizing learning material	1 2 3 4 5
24	Follow up the learning process through tasks or activities as remedial teaching and enrichment	1 2 3 4 5

Source: Teacher Certification Guidelines (2011)



Generally, principals participated in the principals' forum (*Musyawarah Kerja Kepala Sekolah*) at district level. This forum was particularly focused on students' assessment such as providing mid and final semester tests. It aims at achieving the same content standard among schools in the district. "It is not a must for the principal to have a mid-semester test provided by the forum, but we are eager to know whether we have the same content standard or not with other schools. This indicates whether our school has been left behind or not", noted the vice principal of CS 11.

The tests were actually written by the panels of subject teachers or 'selected' teachers in the district. The tests would be purchased by the principals from the district. This practice was observed by the researcher incidentally when she interviewed the junior teacher of CS 4. Two female senior English teachers from CS 4 and one senior teacher from a private school were discussing and writing the tests in a hall of CS 4. "We are asked by the district to design a test and this will be sold to principals in this district", remarked the English teacher of CS 4. The budget money was allocated from operational funds according to most principals.

To summarize, teacher assessment was rarely performed by either principals or the district supervisors; when they did so, it was for the purpose of teacher certification, with 24 indicators using five-point scales (see Table 5.6). Teacher supervision was very poor in all districts. According to MONE regulation, such assessment is to be done by principals and district supervisors. Most English language teachers remarked that they had never been directly supervised, particularly regarding their lesson plans and English teaching in class.

#### **5.1.4 Problems in the Curriculum Implementation: Principals' View**

The principals acknowledged that various problems had arisen from the very beginning in relation to the 2006 curriculum implementation. From the perspectives of the principals, the problems were due to various factors such as teachers' competence in understanding the curriculum and implementing it in class (CS 1, CS 2, CS 6, CS 8, CS 9, CS 10), the heavy workload of teachers (CS 3, CS 4, CS 11), low scores (CS 5), inadequate learning facilities (CS 10 and CS 12) and financial problems and low level of English student motivation (CS 7). Another crucial problem was dealing with the results of the national examination (60 %) and school examination (40 %). The principal in CS 12 clearly noted that the teachers came to him to 'negotiate' the results in order that students passed the examination and took further study (senior high school).

The rumor in many schools across districts was 'to mark up' the results of students, either to pass on to senior high school or the next higher grade (Year 8 and 9). The English teachers confirmed they did extra 'remedial' classes to make the results much better even though they eventually still

needed to mark up the remedial grades. It indicated that the major problem was in regard to either the awareness of teachers as well as their lack of capacity that might be due to lack of supervision, neither by the principal nor the district supervisor. The teachers were sometimes sent to participate in seminars or workshops held by the district, but the outcomes were not very positive. Table 5.7 shows the problems generally highlighted by the principals based on interview data:

**Table 5.7: Problems in Implementing the KTSP Curriculum**

CS	Interviewee	Problems	Solution
1	Principal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- English language teachers who are not creative in teaching English</li> <li>- Strategies in teaching which are simple in terms of terminology</li> <li>- Complicated system in language laboratory</li> </ul>	Send teachers to participate in in-service training, and in terms of laboratory, ask the laboratory technician to sit in on learning process
2	Principal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Content standard and basic competence are too general and it is difficult to understand syllabus</li> </ul>	Specific theme at each grade level
3	Principal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Teachers' workloads are more than 30 hours</li> </ul>	Late submission of syllabus, lesson plan, year and semester program
4	Vice Principal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Teachers' workload</li> </ul>	Based on the number of students, there are four vice principals
5	Vice principal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Minimum grade and target to achieve the minimum grade</li> </ul>	Extra classes and lower the minimum grade
6	Vice Principal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Teachers' lack of creativity in designing lesson plans</li> </ul>	District supervisor to supervise teachers
7	Principal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Low payment to teachers, about Rp 15.000. (AUD \$ 1.5 per hour) and students' English competence</li> </ul>	Asking teachers to be more creative
8.	Principal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Facilities and teachers' competence</li> </ul>	Communicate with parents and monthly meeting to consult with the principal
9	Vice principal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Teaching strategies regarding Elaboration, Exploration and Confirmation</li> </ul>	Asking more ' <i>sosialisasi</i> ' regarding teachers' competence
10	Principal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Teachers' competence and teaching facilities</li> </ul>	More ' <i>sosialisasi</i> ' concerning their creativity
11	Vice principal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Time management in achieving content standard and basic competence</li> </ul>	More teaching hours
12	Principal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Poor facilities and low national examination results</li> </ul>	Teachers marked up the results of school examination

In CS 12, the principal clearly stated that the problem of the curriculum was the national examination. He said,

“The name is school-based curriculum, but why does the government test students nationally? This is unfair. Students here are different from students in the city and other districts. Thus, when the national examination occurs, teachers mark up the result of the school examination to make better grades. This year all students (20) pass the national examination 100 per cent.”

He also encouraged teachers to do the best for students in teaching by implementing any teaching methods or strategies. “It’s up to the teacher whatever the methods are and students get good results and pass the examination”, he added. This indicated that the principal seemed to ignore the teaching process and put the ‘examination’ as the top priority of learning achievement.

In general, both the principals and the vice principals pointed out that problems in implementing the curriculum were due to inadequate knowledge of teachers in pedagogical and professional competencies as well as poor learning facilities; however, there had not been sufficient effort by both principals and teachers to improve teachers' competences; in other words, teachers' competences seemed to be 'ignored' by the teachers themselves and lack of supervision from district officers and principals made this even worse.

### 5.1.5 The Principals and School Culture

In the view of Krug (1990, 1992), principals are mission communicators that can be seen in their behaviour and attitude at school. As Deal and Peterson (1990) suggest, principals are one of the shapers of school culture. The concept of culture here is to reflect values, beliefs and traditions. Schools can be successful if people in the school commit to certain values that can be seen on school productivity. They further describe what successful schools share:

1. Strong values that support a safe and secure environment
2. High expectations of every student
3. Belief in the importance of basic skills instruction
4. The belief that there should be clear performance goals
5. Strong leadership and a belief in its importance (Deal and Peterson, 1990, p. 21)

The existing culture in schools (strong, weak, negative) might have already been formed by the previous principals. Principals need to understand what stakeholders (community, parents, students and staff) want in order to shape a school culture which is indirect, intuitive, and largely conscious (Deal and Peterson, 1990). To shape the school culture, they pointed to the principal as symbol (affirm values), potter (shape and be shaped by the school's heroes, rituals, ceremonies and symbols), poet (use language to reinforce values), actor (improvise) and healer (oversee transitions and change in the life of the school).

The principal's leadership could be partly assessed as well from their vision and mission that was found in the school documentation. Table 5.8 shows that almost all schools expected students to have *Imtaq* (*iman dan takwa*) faith and piety (except for a private small rural school (CS 7) as well as good academic achievement (at least in the four core subjects in the national examination). This indicated that both public and private schools targeted students to become 'religious' even though the religion subject was taught on average 2 or 3 class hours (1 class hour equals 40 minutes) per week except for the Islamic based schools (CS 2, CS 6, CS 8 and CS 10).

In a government urban school (CS 1) and a government city-based school (CS 4), for example, the vision and mission were revealed in the daily customs such as reading the Qur'an for 10 minutes

and having extra classes to achieve better results for the national examination while the Catholic school (CS 3) had morning as well as afternoon prayer.

**Table 5.8: The Vision of the Twelve Case Study Schools**

CS	Vision (in Bahasa Indonesia)	Vision (in English)
1	<i>Berprestasi, trampil berdasarkan iman dan taqwa</i>	Achievement, skilled based on faith and piety
2	<i>Terbentuknya manusia berkualitas tinggi, berakhlak mulia, dilandasi iman dan taqwa</i>	To achieve high-quality humanity, nobility, based on faith and piety
3	<i>Membentuk pribadi yang beriman, berkualitas tinggi, berwatak, dan berbudi pekerti luhur</i>	Personal form of faith, high quality, character, and noble character
4	<i>Mewujudkan sekolah sebagai pusat pendidikan berwawasan lingkungan dan global yang mampu membentuk manusia yang religious, rasional, komuikatif, responsive, reflektif dan prospektif</i>	To be a school as a centre for environmental education and global humanity that is capable of making people religious, rational, communicative, responsive, reflective and prospective
5	<i>Terwujudnya peserta didik yang taqwa, cerdas, disiplin, terampil, sehat dan berprestasi</i>	To obtain piety, intelligent, discipline, skilled, healthy and good achievement
6	<i>Beriman dan bertaqwa, berakhlak mulia serta berprestasi</i>	Faithful and devoted, noble and outstanding
7	<i>Menuju sekolah berprestasi berwawasan keteladanan</i>	Good achievement and exemplary-based
8	<i>Mencetak generasi Mukmin, Mu'allim, Muballigh, Mujahid yang Mukhlis</i>	To raise a faithful and knowledgeable generation who strive to spread the message sincerely
9	<i>Unggul dan berprestasi dengan berlandaskan Iman dan Takwa serta melestarikan budaya</i>	Superior and achievement based on faith and piety as well as conserve culture
10	<i>Terwujudnya pelajar muslim berakhlak mulia, berwawasan Islami, terampil, berbudi pekerti luhur dan berprestasi dalam ilmu pengetahuan dan teknologi, berpedoman pada Al-Qur'an dan Sunnah</i>	The realization of the Muslim with Islamic perspective, skilled, noble character and achievement in science and technology, guided by the Qur'an and Sunnah
11	<i>Disiplin, berprestasi, berakhlak mulia berdasarkan imtaq, iptek dan kompetitif menuju sekolah berstandar nasional pada tahun 2015</i>	Discipline, achievement, nobility based on, and competitive science and technology to become a national standard school towards the year 2015
12	<i>Unggul dalam berprestasi, berbudaya berdasarkan Imtaq</i>	Excellent in achievement, culture based on <i>Imtaq</i>

Source: The twelve case studies curriculum

To inculcate the Islamic faith, the students in two government schools (CS 1 and CS 4) in different districts and the Islamic based schools (CS 2, CS 6, CS 8 and CS 10) read the Qur'an aloud in Arabic, without understanding, every morning for about ten to fifteen minutes before school began. All students sat and read the Qur'an together, while non Muslims read their own holy book. In CS 4, the largest school, the mosque was always used by people and staff working closely together. Additionally of note, the principal of the international program school (CS 4) stipulated female Muslim students must wear the hijab at school. However, this did not eventuate since some parents disagreed, arguing it was a public school, not an Islamic-based school.

Most of the schools had their own mosque or Musholla (small mosque) that was mostly used for Morning Prayer (*Dhuha*), Afternoon Prayer (*Dhuhur*) as well as *Jum'at* Prayer (CS 2, CS 4, and CS 5). This was in line with the schools' mission and vision written in the curriculum, that is, becoming the best outcome students, skillful based on faith and piety (*Imtaq* – constructed from the words *Iman dan Taqwa*). The Catholic school, for example, had a Morning Christian Prayer, the Angelus Prayer at midday in English and a Prayer when going home.

In general, schools were shown to have similar missions wanting the highest academic achievement possible and inculcating religious belief and practice. This is in line with Raihani's (2006) finding that successful principals in Indonesia were driven by strong cultural beliefs and values (*kekeluargaan dan amanah*) even when the schools were not formally Islamic.

For students to have higher academic achievement, the principal asked parents agreement regarding extra classes for the four core subjects in every school except for CS 6, CS 7, CS 9, CS 10 and CS 12. This did not happen in these five schools due to teachers' time availability and the distance from schools to their home. The senior teacher in CS 5 said that these extra classes were often cancelled due to 'the bad weather' and the teacher asked students to go home early.

To achieve good grades in the national examination, the principal in CS 1 had a weekly meeting with teachers on Monday after the flag ceremony for about fifteen minutes to discuss what the staff had done and what to plan for the coming week. The principal of CS 3 had meetings with all teachers weekly, sometimes morning or after school. Generally, most principals did not have a well-organized schedule and meetings with teachers once a year at the beginning of semester.

In terms of relation between principals and teachers as well as students, each case study revealed different situations. In CS 1, the female principal seemed to be friendly to teachers and staff. She mostly welcomed students by shaking their hands. Though Catholic herself, she encouraged students to pray and read the Qur'an at the first teaching period. Welcoming students and shaking their hands also occurred in other schools (CS 2, CS 4, and CS 5), particularly when the schools were 'religion-based' (CS 2, CS 3, CS 6, and CS 10). To understand the school culture of the 12 case studies, the data were gained partly from the school documentation (school curriculum) and class and school observation. Based on the documentation (school motto), almost all schools wanted the students to have *imtaq* (faith and piety) as well as good academic achievement.

## **5.2 Vice Principal: A Snapshot**

Principals generally delegated their duties, particularly in curriculum development to vice principals (MONE No. 19/2007). This regulation clearly mandates that at junior high school level, there is minimum of one vice principal (*wakasek*), while there are at least three in senior high schools and four for vocational schools. For vice principals or the head of library or laboratory technician has 12 hours teaching in class (Article 54). These vice principals have responsibility for revising the curriculum together with those teachers responsible for developing the syllabus and lesson plan.

The number of vice principals depends on number of students and the school program (RSBI, SSN or potential school). The vice principal (CS 4) contended,

“In the Yogyakarta municipality, the head of the district education office had a good policy concerning teaching hours, (1) for junior high schools, based on the student numbers, classes and school program such as the international pilot school, there are four vice principals who have 12 teaching hours. These vice principals help colleagues to achieve their 24 hours, (2) teachers can fulfill their 24 teaching hours in other schools in the province with the principals’ permission.”

The official policy relates the number of vice principals to the number of students – a school with six classes has one vice principal, twelve classes two vice principals and so on. However, this policy was not observed among schools in all districts. In Yogyakarta, Bantul, Gunungkidul and Kulonprogo, the vice principals had 12 teaching hours in class, while in Sleman, there was one vice principal with 12 hours teaching in class, helped by three staff (*wakil kepala urusan – wakaur*) with their 24 teaching hours in class. The rumor was that lots of *wakaurs* disagreed with their 24 hours teaching allocation due to their administrative duties (English senior teacher CS 2). In response to this, the district supervisor noted that such issues had been raised but the head of the district education office did not positively respond due to the ‘impacts’. “When I brought this issue to MONE, they said that this regulation should be amended”, said the district supervisor.

Vice principals in general found difficulty fulfilling their teaching responsibility and their ‘administrative time’. With the teaching requirement, most of them complained about ‘the unfairness’ of the policy stipulated by the government. However, they could do nothing. In other words, some vice principals had their 24 teaching hours while some had 12 hours.

### **5.3 The Perception of Teachers of Subjects Other than English**

The principals and teachers of subjects other than English are also crucial factors in curriculum implementation. Altrichter (2005) remarked that the principal and management team are the key for successful schools. They need to have a level of commitment that is reflected in the time and energy they devote to its implementation (Thomas, 1994) as cited in Altrichter (2005). Regarding the perceptions of curriculum implementation, the 12 CS agreed that the KTSP curriculum was good as it accommodated school and students’ characteristics, particularly through the notion of local content subjects. The following paragraphs describe the perceptions of teachers of subjects other than English (184 teachers) in terms of the 2006 curriculum, particularly the English language subject. The questions rated using five-point scales delivered to non-English teachers were about the rating of the core subjects, their views regarding in-service training conducted by the districts and about English language teaching including English language teachers and school facilities.

**CS 1:** Most of the teachers (about 78 %) in this national standard school put forward English as the most important subject followed by Bahasa Indonesia, science and mathematics. Of further note in this urban school was the teachers' support for the teaching of English at junior secondary level with the KTSP curriculum by providing internet sources while the other 22 per cent said it could be supported by English textbooks and references. Concerning in-service training conducted regionally, 49 % of the teaching staff said the district education office did not provide sufficient programs for teachers; while 32 per cent of the teachers said they had obtained sufficient training.

**CS 2:** Teachers were of the view that the most important subject was Bahasa Indonesia followed by English, science and mathematics. The non-English teachers also said that less than 50 per cent of students liked to learn English. About 70 per cent of the teachers said that English language teaching in junior high schools should be supplemented in an English language class outside normal school time. When for example it happened at school, it must be supported with a multimedia laboratory which was more important than a language laboratory.

**CS 3:** Regarding the most important subject to be learnt, teachers agreed on Bahasa Indonesia, followed by English, science and mathematics while students agreed that mathematics was the most important subject to learn followed by English, science and Bahasa Indonesia. Concerning the implementation of the curriculum, 74 per cent said that the English teachers were very good and the facilities and resources to learn English such as internet access, English magazines and comics was sufficient.

**CS 4:** English was put forward as the first subject to be taught in this pilot international standard school followed by Bahasa Indonesia, science and mathematics. About 52 per cent of non-English teachers said that English was well taught in this school, 63 per cent saying that the English teachers were 'qualified'. This can be seen by the result of the national examination which seemed to be in the top ranking, over 8, for English and also for other subjects.

**CS 5:** Non English teachers agreed that Bahasa Indonesia was the most important subject to be taught, followed by mathematics, natural science and, lastly, English. The English language program in this school, according to the teachers, is taught by good staff, and is supported by sufficient facilities, although more English reference books and learning resources should be provided.

**CS 6:** The survey of the non English teachers seemed to indicate that about 60 per cent stated that Bahasa Indonesia was the most important subject followed by mathematics, science and English. Another noteworthy result was that they (79 %) agreed that the KTSP curriculum was appropriate



to be implemented in junior high schools, while 16 per cent disagreed. They (63 %) supported a multimedia laboratory rather than a language laboratory (32 %). Regarding English language teaching at school, 79 per cent agreed English be taught at school; while 21 per cent agreed learning English was for outside school. In terms of the English language teaching at school, they said that English was not taught well (37 %) in this village school and 63 per cent felt unsure about it; they stated as well that the teachers' competence (11 %) was sufficient and (41 %) insufficient. This seemed to indicate that teachers in general had their doubts on the English teachers' competence. It might have been influenced by the result due to the result of the national examination which was the lowest of the four subjects.

**CS 7:** Based on the teachers' survey, non-English teachers put Bahasa Indonesia as the most important, followed by mathematics, English and natural science. Regarding the teaching of English in this school, 88 per cent of teachers agreed English was taught by good staff, sufficient facilities were provided even though there were no laboratories and English was liked by the majority of students.

**CS 8:** The survey of the non-English teachers indicated that about 60 per cent stated that Bahasa Indonesia was the most important subject followed by English, mathematics and science. Another noteworthy result was that they (88 %) agreed that the KTSP curriculum was well-implemented in this junior high school. In terms of English language teaching at school, they said that students (39 %) liked English and it was taught well (34 %), but 50 per cent felt unsure; they stated as well that the teachers' competence was sufficient (27 %) and insufficient (22 %) , 51 per cent felt in doubt about the teacher's competence. This seemed to indicate that teachers in general had their doubts about the English teachers' competence, perhaps because of educational background of the English teachers and their professional development. "The problems faced by this school is teachers' competence and the school facility", said the principal who had headed the school since 2008.

**CS 9:** Based on the survey, most of the non-English teachers (67 %) in this school serving a farming community said that a teacher with an international qualification should be teaching at this junior high school and 100 % agreed that English learning resources should be provided at the school; all teachers should be actively participating in the development of information technology and the school needed a relationship with a school or with students from English speaking countries. Regarding English language and teaching, the teachers said that English was the favourite subject followed by science, Bahasa Indonesia, and mathematics and it was supported with sufficient equipment, including internet access in the multimedia laboratory.



**CS 10:** Based on the survey, non-English teachers in this small Islamic school put forward Bahasa Indonesia as the most important subject followed by science, mathematics and English. About 92 per cent of non-English teachers said that the KTSP curriculum should be implemented at junior high school and 46 per cent remarked that the English language teacher was good. In addition, 13 per cent teachers noted that school facilities such as TV, VCD, tape recorder and computer were good even though based on school observation, the school did not have such equipment. The students learnt information technology (computer); however, they had never seen a computer for them to learn. The sociolinguistic context as well as parents' socioeconomic background were not good. In the school context, for example, school staff used Javanese to communicate even to students. School and classroom observation showed that students spoke mostly in Javanese.

Regarding parents' socioeconomic background, the principal said that most parents were subsistent farmers on very low incomes. The English teacher remarked, "Parents here are mostly primary school graduates and work as farmers, then they are followed by small traders or sellers in the traditional market and a small percentage of government employees working in other districts and housemaids working some distance from their homes who leave their children to live with their grandparents". It seemed to indicate the students enrolled here in general were from a low educational and socio-economic background. "When for the first time I began leading this school, I soon understood that students were coming to school without breakfast. Their parents are too busy with daily activities to be able to afford time and money for breakfast", said the principal sadly.

Concerning the teaching of English, 60 per cent of non-English teachers noted that English was taught well by the lone English language teacher; in fact, the students had gained an average English score of 5.08 which was categorized as a very low score because the minimum standard required to pass and become enrolled in a senior high school is stipulated as 5.5 (this score is the final score based on the national exam (60%) and on the school exam (40%).

**CS 11:** Based on the survey, the non-English teachers (95 %) said that the English language should be taught at junior high school and 85 per cent agreed with the KTSP curriculum. As well, 85 per cent agreed that English learning resources should be provided at school, 90 per cent of teachers said teachers should be actively participating in the development of information technology and the school needed a relationship with a school or students from English speaking countries. Regarding the most popular subject, the teachers said that Bahasa Indonesia was number one followed by English, science, and mathematics.

**CS 12:** Only five teachers of twenty three filled in the questionnaire in this small village school. The five teachers agreed that Bahasa Indonesia was the most popular subject followed by English,

science and mathematics. English, according to them, was not liked by the students and the learning facilities were very minimal. Regarding English teachers, only 20 per cent said that they were good though one of the teachers complained about teachers at the school,

“Teachers here rarely come even on days, for example, of their teaching schedule. They come only when they have spare time, not according to their schedule. That’s why we have a schedule here but it is very ‘negotiable’. And when they have finished teaching, they directly go home or do other things, not in the school”.

To conclude, collective data showed that the sequence of importance of the core subjects were Bahasa Indonesia, English, science and mathematics. Most non-English teachers (about two-third) of the schools put Bahasa Indonesia to be the first subject, while one third put English as their first subject, whereas three quarters of the staff put mathematics at the least important. They might think that language, both Bahasa Indonesia and English, would be more important than other subjects.

**Table 5.9: The Rating of Importance of Core Subjects: Non-English Teachers**

	CS 1	CS 2	CS 3	CS 4	CS 5	CS 6	CS 7	CS 8	CS 9	CS 10	CS 11	CS 12	Average
<b>Bahasa Indonesia</b>	2	1	1	2	3	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	1.50
<b>English</b>	1	2	2	1	1	4	3	2	1	3	2	2	2.00
<b>Mathematics</b>	4	4	4	4	4	2	2	3	4	4	4	4	3.58
<b>Science</b>	3	3	3	3	2	3	4	4	2	2	3	3	2.92

The non-English teachers generally agreed that the KTSP curriculum had been implemented at the junior high school level. The name of the KTSP showed that the curriculum belongs to the school itself which is in line with the characteristics of both schools and students; in fact, when they were asked about ‘characteristics’ of the school and students, they could not respond to the question. Also, the teaching of English according to the non-English teachers was taught by adequate teachers; in some schools, however, the lack of learning resources and internet access was still complained of by most teachers in the twelve schools.

## 5.4 Summary

In general, non-English teachers (about two-thirds) put Bahasa Indonesia to be the most important subject followed by English. This indicated that the teaching of language is more important than other core subjects (mathematics and science). Also, the principals and school staff tried to set up their minimum passing grade as stipulated by the government, 7.5. Additional classes after school hours had been conducted by most teachers to reach the grades.

Also, school staff put more teaching hours to their curriculums. The government stipulates 32 teaching hours per week; however, almost all schools had at least 43 teaching hours delivered over

six days consisting of 10 compulsory subjects together with local content and self development classes. The 'curriculum development' itself was done by a team led by the principals.

The 2006 curriculum was difficult to implement on the ground due to various factors. The success of curriculum implementation depends on each school staff and the district supervisors as the quality control mechanism in the decentralized system. However, what happened on the ground was the school staff were incompetent in planning their curriculum and had limited knowledge. As a result, with lack of supervision by district supervisors, schools tended to copy paste the curriculum as guided by the BSNP. The principals who should be responsible at the school level seemed incapable to oversee the curriculum according to the characteristics of both school and student. Most of the principals did 'copy paste' the curriculum from the example given by the government or other schools in the districts. Such a view was also highlighted by the district supervisors saying that almost all schools had an 'adoption' curriculum which implied that the curriculum documentation was still the same one with the guidelines given by the government. The differences were about teaching hours of the core subjects, the minimum grade for passing, the selection of the local content subjects as well as the self-development subject. This indicated that school staff, particularly principals, were unable to 'design' their own curriculum that matched with the characteristics of school and students. The school curriculum also seemed to be 'similar' each year though it was supposed to be 'developed' or 'revised' annually.

The instructional leadership among principals in Yogyakarta was not well performed in terms of improving academic achievement particularly of teaching and learning. Supervisions seemed to happen very rarely. The vice principal of CS 4 noted that the implementation of the curriculum seemed to be complex. The school staff need to be more autonomous though the peoples' mindset remained 'stable'. They are used to being spoonfed by central government. To simplify, the school staff seemed not ready for the KTSP curriculum, and the implementation of the KTSP curriculum seemed to be unsuccessful due to various factors from the district supervisors, principals, and English language teachers.

## CHAPTER 6

### EVALUATION OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CURRICULUM: THE ENGLISH TEACHERS' PERSPECTIVE

Teachers are a major factor in student performance even though other factors such as family support and motivation contribute to students' achievement. Leigh (2007) in Jalal et al. (2009, p. 7) claims that quality teachers produce quality students, it follows then that poor achievements of students can be attributed to the poor quality of teachers. Teachers can improve the overall quality of education. This chapter describes the profile of Indonesian teachers in general, in particular English language teachers in the twelve case studies. Their pre and in-service training, the teacher certification program as well as teacher workload will be described.

#### 6.1 A Profile of Indonesian Teachers

With the enactment of the decentralized system in 2000, teachers were reassigned to district and provincial education units even though all salaries are still set centrally through districts' budgets (*Anggaran Pendapatan Belanja Daerah*) as part of their block grant (*Dana Alokasi Umum* - general allocation fund) and sometimes supported by supplementary benefits and incentives from the districts. The salaries of teachers as civil servants are paid from government funds, whereas the teachers described as non-civil servants have their salaries paid by the sponsoring foundation. Districts through MOHA have responsibility for employing all public and private school teachers; the ambiguity, however, occurs regarding professional development of teachers. Jalal et al. (2009) suggested in-service training, previously carried out by projects funded by donors or by MONE, have been happening far less in recent years due to lack of resources or the motivation of districts.

Teacher recruitment lies in the hands of the districts. Jalal et al. (2009) pointed out that the results of the national civil service teachers' examinations in 2004 generally showed that there were one million applicants competing for 64,000 positions as civil service teachers. The teaching profession according to them is relatively more attractive for people with a lower qualification. They also found that teachers' scores were low in the subjects that they were required to teach and teachers in Indonesia had lower level academic qualifications than those in neighbouring nations. They clarified further:

“More than 60 per cent of the total 2.78 million teachers have not reached the level of academic qualification of a four-year bachelor's degree (S1/D4). The majority have either a D2 (two-year diploma) or a senior secondary certificate qualification. Most teachers from this group (about 70 %) teach in the primary school.” (Jalal et al., 2009, p. 7)

**Table 6.1(a): Numbers of Junior High School Teachers by Academic Qualification (MONE) (2006)**

	Civil Servant		Non-Civil Servant		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Doctorate	4	0.00	3	0.00	7	0.00
Master	2,870	0.59	407	0.08	3,277	0.67
Bachelor	164,388	33.67	134,931	27.64	299,319	61.31
Diploma 3	51,441	10.54	21,381	4.38	72,822	14.92
Diploma 2	25,785	5.28	11,661	2.39	37,446	7.67
Diploma 1	29,327	6.01	6,875	1.41	36,202	7.42
High School	16,060	3.29	23,073	4.72	39,133	8.01
<b>Total</b>	<b>289,875</b>	<b>59.38</b>	<b>198,331</b>	<b>40.62</b>	<b>488,206</b>	<b>100.00</b>

**Table 6.1(b): Numbers of Junior High School Teachers by Academic Qualification (MORA) (2006)**

	Civil Servant		Non-Civil Servant		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Doctorate	1	0.00	3	0.00	4	0.00
Master	234	0.13	365	0.20	599	0.33
Bachelor	16,687	9.28	78,639	43.74	95,326	53.02
Diploma 3	5,670	3.15	16,889	9.39	22,559	12.54
Diploma 2	1,615	0.90	11,939	6.64	13,554	7.54
Diploma 1	621	0.35	10,101	5.62	10,722	5.97
High School	886	0.49	36,159	20.11	37,045	20.60
<b>Total</b>	<b>25,714</b>	<b>14.30</b>	<b>154,095</b>	<b>85.70</b>	<b>179,809</b>	<b>100.00</b>

**Table 6.1(c): Numbers of Junior High School Teachers by Academic Qualification (MONE and MORA) (2006)**

	Civil Servant		Non-Civil Servant		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Doctorate	5	0.00	6	0.00	11	0.00
Master	3,104	0.46	772	0.12	3,876	0.58
Bachelor	181,075	27.11	213,570	31.97	394,645	59.08
Diploma 3	57,111	8.55	38,270	5.73	95,381	14.28
Diploma 2	27,400	4.10	23,600	3.53	51,000	7.63
Diploma 1	29,948	4.48	16,976	2.54	46,924	7.02
High School	16,946	2.54	59,232	8.87	76,178	11.41
<b>Total</b>	<b>315,589</b>	<b>47.24</b>	<b>352,426</b>	<b>52.76</b>	<b>668,015</b>	<b>100.00</b>

Source: Directorate of Teacher Profession MONE as cited in Jalal et al. (2009)

The low competence of teachers in the subjects they are required to teach was noted also by one of the provincial quality assurance officials. He contended that teachers recruited as civil servants were not assessed on their English competency nor on their proficiency as teachers. “The tests are general knowledge of pedagogical aspects and most test items are in the form of multiple choice”, he said. This seemed to indicate that the failure of education was begun by districts by having

‘invalid’ assessment since there was no particular test assessing the language proficiency of English teacher candidates. Districts seemed to place little attention on teacher competence.

A different picture of teachers in junior high schools was revealed in the 2006 data of the Directorate of Teacher Profession, MONE as cited in Jalal et al. (2006) (see Table 6.1). Of the total number of Indonesian junior high school teachers, MONE has more civil servants (43.4 %) than MORA (3.8 %). MONE had 59 per cent civil servants with 61 per cent holding a bachelor degree and 14 per cent diploma 3. A different and contrasting situation occurred with teachers under MORA. Most (86 %) are not civil servant, bachelor (53 %), and senior high school graduates (20.6 %); so, teachers (41 %) nationally had their academic qualification below S1/D4 (sarjana). Even though teachers’ qualifications were satisfactory, it did not always mean they had the necessary competence. Hamied (2003, p. 14) as cited in Soepriyatna (2012, p. 40) said:

*“Seringkali gelar yang diperoleh tidak memiliki korelasi positif dengan kompetensi bahasa dan mengajar yang sesungguhnya”* (having a degree in English language teaching does not always correlate positively with language and teaching competence.”

Table 6.1 indicates that many teachers had lower level academic qualification that seemed to indicate poor quality of teachers – this might impact on students’ academic performance. A World Bank Report (2013) entitled *Spending More or Spending Better: Improving Education Financing in Indonesia* found that Indonesian students’ scores were at the bottom on international tests (TIMSS, PIRLS and PISA). The latest 2013 Report of the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) testing in three areas (mathematics, reading and science), for example, states that Indonesia ranked 64 out of 65 countries (<http://www.oecd.org/pisa/keyfindings/pisa-2012-results-overview.pdf>).

## **6.2 English Language Teachers in the Case Study Schools: Their Profile**

The profile of teachers’ qualifications nationally is not different from teachers in the sample of the research (the twelve case studies). The profile of the 47 English language teachers in the twelve case studies revealed much in terms of each teacher’s educational background and experience in teaching at the particular school as well as in previous schools. Basically, most had a bachelor degree from an English language department whilst only three had a master’s degree, including two in the same school (CS 1) with one in the principal’s role.

Most (about 80 per cent, above the national average as in Table 6.1) held a bachelor degree majoring in English from either government or private universities in Yogyakarta, except for one teacher in CS 12 who attended a private university in Jakarta. Three teachers (CS 2, CS 5 and CS 6) had a diploma degree and three (one from CS 7 and two teachers in CS 8) were senior high

school graduates. One (CS 7) was still undertaking her bachelor degree in English in a Yogyakarta state university (see Table 6.2).

Of the total number of 46 English language teachers in the 12 schools the researcher interviewed 25 – 14 were senior teachers who had been teaching for 6 – 36 years while for their junior colleagues the range was from 1 to 26 years. The terminology used (senior and junior teacher) depended on their teaching experience in the school. The principal selected which teachers would be interviewed and observed.

**Table 6.2: English Language Teacher Profile in the Academic Years of 2011/2012**

Case Study No	No. of Students	No. of Teachers (Full & Part time)	No. of English Teachers (No. Interviewed)	Education Background				Senior English Teacher Experience	School Status
				SMA <sup>1</sup>	D <sup>2</sup>	B <sup>3</sup>	M <sup>4</sup>		
1	418	36	4 (2)	-	-	2	2	21	Government
2	432	31	4 (3)	-	1	2	1	21	Private
3	675	29	4 (2)	-	-	4	-	11	Private
4	968	57	6 (3)	-	-	6	-	13	Government
5	586	52	5 (2)	-	1	4	-	14	Government
6	568	43	5 (2)	-	1	4	-	16	Government
7	130	23	4 (2)	1	-	3	-	7	Private
8	93	38	4 (2)	2	-	2	-	36	Private
9	324	31	3 (2)	-	-	3	-	13	Government
10	150	24	1 (1)	-	-	1	-	22	Private
11	431	38	3 (2)	-	-	3	-	13	Government
12	74	23	3 (2)	-	-	3	-	6	Private
<b>Total</b>	<b>4849</b>	<b>425</b>	<b>46 (25)</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>16.08</b>	

Note: <sup>1</sup> Senior high school graduate, <sup>2</sup> Diploma (a one, two or three year program),

<sup>3</sup> Bachelor (Sarjana – a four year program), <sup>4</sup> Master (a two year program)

Regarding the experience of senior teachers, the one with the longest teaching experience was a male teacher in CS 8 with 36 years, teaching previously at a private Islamic-based junior high school. His knowledge of English had been gained from one year of English study after his senior high school. Initially a tourist guide, he then tried to become an English teacher in a junior high school. He undertook a three year diploma, not in English or English education, but in the Faculty of Social Politics at a state university in Yogyakarta. When this boarding school (CS 8) was first founded in 1986, he became one of its founders and specifically taught Year Nine to prepare them for the national examination. He remarked, “I know my pronunciation is not really good, but the most important thing in teaching English is to motivate students to learn English and to teach them as many new lexical items as possible because if they know the vocabulary items, it means it’s easier for them to learn English, even to do the national examination... I teach without a lesson plan. I start with students’ interest to learn”. This seemed to imply his understanding regarding the curriculum, syllabus and lesson plans were inadequate due to his lack of educational qualification as well as his lack of participation in in-service training.

On the other hand, the senior teacher at CS 2 with 21 years' teaching experience had a master's degree in learning technology funded by the provincial office and had graduated in 2008 at the Yogyakarta State University. She had been teaching in CS 2 since 1990 after finishing her undergraduate English language education program at a private university in Yogyakarta. She participated in in-service training regarding information technology and English language teaching, specifically on media in learning. She was an active member of the Jogjakarta English Teachers' Association (JETA) as well. After gaining her master's degree in learning technology, she was appointed as coordinator for the school laboratories as it was in line with her master's program. She was the only English language teacher among all the language teachers interviewed who used the laboratory as well as creating her lesson plans herself.

Regarding the junior teachers, their experience was between 1 – 26 years. In CS 2 for example, the junior teacher had been teaching English for 26 years, teaching at CS 2 for five years. Additionally, the teacher in CS 6 had finished her diploma in English language teaching (a two year program) in 1987 and studied Islamic education in a private college and gained her bachelor degree in 2011 and had been teaching in CS 6 since 2005. A junior teacher in CS 7 was still undertaking her Bachelor degree in the English language department.

The youngest teacher was in CS 8, a graduate of a senior high school who took an English class for nine months in 2007 in East Java. Subsequently, she went to Yogyakarta and immediately began teaching in CS 8 in 2009. She had never been to university, and she was basically untrained. Her reason not to continue further study was that she was still responsible for her brother's tuition fees as well as for her family living in her village – she mentioned that her salary of about Rp 500,000.00 (AUD \$ 50) per month, was all sent to her family. To keep her living expenses low, she was employed as *guru dalam* (staying at school) and ate daily in this boarding school. Another noteworthy point was that the school had offered her a scholarship for her study; however, she said that she did not want to be 'engaged' to this school; she was thinking of establishing an English school in her village.

The number of teachers varied. Most were full time teachers, while part time teachers taught the Religion subject such as Catholicism, Hinduism and Buddhism. In general, the number of teachers in the twelve case studies was sufficient in terms of the number of students and teaching hours. Some schools, however, had a shortage of teachers. "We had a limited number of teachers, so teachers here taught at least 30 hours per week", said one principal (CS 3). "It's not a problem for the core subject teachers; however, other teachers teaching civic education for example, they need to teach in other schools to fulfill their 24 hours teaching," responded one vice principal (CS 4). The principals of CS 1 and CS 5 mentioned there were seven part time teachers whereas there were



three part time and three sessional teachers from a total of 38 teachers in CS 11, and three part time teachers in CS 9. These part time teachers were those who still needed more hours to fulfill their 24 hours.

In most Islamic-based schools, the number of part time teachers was more than the full time, for example, twelve full time and eleven part time teachers teaching in CS 7, while fourteen (10 females and 4 males) full time teachers staying in the boarding schools and 34 part time teachers (CS 8). The most extreme example was in CS 10 with four full time and twenty part time teachers. It might have been occurring due to the rural isolation of the school.

The profile of the twelve case studies generally seemed to reflect the portrait of English language teachers in Yogyakarta. English language teachers in Indonesia particularly in Yogyakarta seemed to be very satisfactory in terms of their university educational qualifications and significant teaching experience. Most of the teachers had gained a bachelor degree in English language education and their experience ranged between 1 – 36 years. Systematically sampled, the 46 English teachers seemed to reflect the overall teachers' profile in the city, urban and rural areas, both in the public and private schools across the province. In each school, the number of English teachers was generally four on average (full time and part time teachers) with the number of students about 400 on average. The minimum teaching requirement (24 hours in class) stipulated by the government (Indonesian Law No. 14/2005, Government Regulation No. 74/2008 and MONE Regulation No. 39/2009) drove teachers to achieve their minimum teaching hours. As a result, each school seemed to have a sufficient number of teachers.

### **6.3 Pre-service Training of the Teachers**

To become teachers for primary and secondary schools, teachers are required to have a 4-year education program (bachelor degree) at a higher education institution. In Yogyakarta, four universities – UNY (Yogyakarta State University), USD (Sanata Dharma University), UST (Sarjanawiyata Tamansiswa University), and UAD (Ahmad Dahlan University) – prepare English language teachers for primary (SD) up to secondary schools (SMP and SMA/SMK). Each university had designed its own curriculum as stipulated through the Decree of MONE (2000) which is in accordance with government guidelines in teaching. A minimum of 148 *sk*s (*sistem kredit semester*) or credit points is required to gain a bachelor degree with skills and knowledge as required by the stakeholders. These pre-service training programs include general courses and English language skills, teaching methodology, research skills, micro teaching sessions, teaching practice and a thesis.

The program at a private university founded by Indonesian education's founding father (Ki Hadjar Dewantara) on 15 November 1955, Sarjanawiyata Tamansiswa University, for example, provides university subjects (16 *sks*), faculty subjects (13 *sks*) and English language department subjects (111 *sks*) (see Table 6.3). In this higher education program majoring in English, it was inevitably focussed on English proficiency subjects which was composed of 73 per cent of the total teaching time including language learning strategies and self access centre, 11 per cent regarding English language teaching methodology, 5 per cent research in education, 11 per cent seminar classes and thesis (English language department syllabus, 2009). As well, students are required to undertake the micro teaching subject, teaching practice, and community service or *Kuliah Kerja Nyata* (KKN) in semester 6 or 7 for 3 to 6 months. Table 6.3 shows the courses of pre-service trainings in relation to teachers' competences stipulated by the government.

**Table 6.3: Institutional Curriculum: Sarjanawiyata Tamansiswa University**

Competence	Courses & Credit Points			Total	Percentage
	University	Faculty	Eng. Department		
Personal	2	-	-	2	1.35
Social	12	-	-	12	8.11
Pedagogy	-	11	10	21	14.19
Professional	2	2	109	113	76.35
Total	16	13	119	148	100

Source: English language syllabus of Sarjanawiyata Tamansiswa University

To provide quality teachers in a globalized era, the government changed the language teaching paradigm from content-based to communicative competence in 2004. In general, the courses are divided into five categories (Table 6.4), the generic competencies subjects (*mata kuliah pengembangan kepribadian* (MPK)), disciplinary knowledge and skill subjects (*mata kuliah keilmuan dan ketrampilan* (MKK)), job and occupational skill subjects (*mata kuliah keahlian berkarya* (MKB)), work ethics subjects (*mata kuliah perilaku berkarya* (MPB)), and civics education (*mata kuliah berkehidupan bersama* (MBB)).

**Table 6.4: Curriculum Framework: Sarjanawiyata Tamansiswa University**

No	Course Code	Course	Competencies					Kind of Activity & Credit Point			
			MPK	MKK	MKB	MPB	MBB	*T	P	L	Σ
1	UST	University	12				4	12		4	16
2	KIP	Faculty		6	4		3	7		6	13
3	ING	Eng. Department		6	105			64	41	6	111
4	ING	Eng. Department		4	4			4	4		8
Jumlah								131	4	13	148

T (theory), P (practice), L (*lapangan* or on-site)

The teachers' educational background indicated that most had sufficient knowledge regarding English language teaching due to their university training (English language department) in which pedagogical aspects as well as the English language itself were learnt. However, the pre-service training pursued by most teachers only seemed to be sufficient for their general pedagogical skills. Undergraduate students of English language departments, for example, are required to have passed their micro teaching as well as teaching practice in secondary schools. In fact, the outcome was rather different. An interesting question regarding teacher competence in relation to pre-service training conducted by higher education institutions in Indonesia is how to improve their teaching of English language and of language teaching pedagogy and also how well equipped are lecturers to teach students.

When the researcher asked the teachers where they needed to improve their teaching knowledge, most answers focused on pedagogical aspects such as teaching methodology and English language skills. This happened because they were mostly in doubt about what and how to teach English according to the new paradigm, namely the 2004 competency based-curriculum before it became the 2006 curriculum or school-based curriculum (KTSP) which is built around the notion of communicative competence.

Of the twenty five teachers who filled in the questionnaire, about 29 per cent said that they needed to learn much more about teaching methodology including classroom techniques, contextual teaching and learning, and teaching the four skills. Twenty five per cent wanted to learn linguistics such as linguistic theory, language acquisition theory, bilingualism and cultural background. Twenty per cent wanted to learn about teaching materials development; however, a further 26 per cent teachers wanted to learn how to write publishable materials for improving their writing skills. In short, the topics they needed to learn dealt with pedagogical and professional aspects in teaching. These results show that most teachers still found difficulty in teaching English, particularly in class.

#### **6.4 The In-service Training Program: The District Panel of English Subject Teachers** *(Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran – MGMP)*

Richards (2001) remarked that 'language teachers often suffer from poor employment conditions (p. 205). He suggested ways to develop teacher knowledge and skills such as conference participation, workshops and in-service seminars, reading groups, peer observation, writing about teaching, project work and action research.

To improve teachers' capacity, in 1979 the British Council and University of London tried to encourage teachers to work on in-service training and self-improvement activities by having the panel of subject teachers (KKG/MGMP). MONE then developed a policy (No 079/Kep/I/93) on the formation of such panels in 2001.

To respond to the changing of the curriculum, the government had initiated district panels of subject teachers (MGMP) as an organizational mechanism to share and inform what the central government stipulated regarding the national education standard (the 1945 Indonesian Constitution, Indonesian Constitution No. 22/1999, Government Regulation No. 25/2000, Indonesian Constitution No. 25/2000 and No. 20/2003).

The Directorate General of Primary and Secondary Education outlined the basic concepts of MGMP in 2001. It aimed at developing teachers' creativity and innovation as well as raising their teaching professionalism. It particularly was designed to (1) improve teachers' knowledge regarding effective teaching and learning, (2) create a conducive learning environment in class and (3) build relations with stakeholders. In achieving its aims, each MGMP needed to collaborate with universities, Provincial Quality Assurance Agencies (*Lembaga Penjamin Mutu Provinsi*), DEOs, professional organizations and the local community. These teachers' panels consist of at least a coordinator, a secretary and a treasurer. Basically, MGMP is funded by the monthly fee paid by schools (each teacher pays Rp. 10,000 – AUD \$ 1). "The schools sent one or two teachers in turns", one of the coordinators of MGMP noted.

Various projects including donor or government projects had support both from districts and civil society (Jalal et al., 2009). A grant offered by the provincial quality assurance agency was distributed annually. This grant was always competed for by all panels of subject teachers who wrote a submission for conducting a seminar or workshop. The coordinator of one district panel of English teachers remarked that she had always gained such a grant since first coordinating in early 2000. Some were successful; others had lapsed and it depended on the coordinator's leadership, motivated teachers and financial support. However, support for district panels has been sporadic and unevenly distributed due to the decentralized system (Jalal et al., 2009).

The MGMP normally had a meeting at least monthly; some districts had fortnightly meetings. In the city, the coordinator had arranged regular meetings but teachers' participation was spasmodic; Teachers said it was due to their teaching workload. While in urban areas, some were participating actively, others, particularly those whose schools were distant, said that they had never participated in any kind of meetings (CS 10 and CS 12). They discussed the syllabus and other things with their friends in other schools in the district.

Six schools (CS 1, CS 3, CS 4, CS 5, CS 9 and CS 11) had school panels of English subject teachers, or *Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran Sekolah* (MGMPs). When the researcher asked about when and how long the meetings occurred, their answers varied. Generally, they acknowledged that it was an occasion for teachers to share their knowledge. In fact, it was about junior teachers asking seniors when they had problems in teaching. The principals acknowledged the existence of school panels of English subject teachers, however, they noted that the meetings depended on the teachers themselves. These panels took place particularly when the schools ‘evaluated’ the curriculum. The principals asked the coordinator of the panels who seemed to be ‘senior teachers’ to collect the syllabus documentation for the curriculum attachment. At that time, the coordinators of MGMPs modified their syllabus and lesson plans to be collected at school level as the school curriculum together with the syllabus and lesson plans might, but only might, be taught as such in the classroom.

These school panels seemed to be ‘passive’ (meeting irregularly with few or no productive outcomes). After the district meeting, for example, the teachers were supposed to share the results to other teachers in their schools in ‘informal and unscheduled meetings’. However, the meetings rarely happened. All teachers in these six case studies remarked that a meeting happened when there was a problem or something new in the curriculum. “If there are any difficulties or new information, we sometimes have discussions although the school suggests it be monthly”, said the two English teachers in CS 1. A similar situation of “very rare discussion” among English language teachers happened also in CS 3, CS 4, CS 5, CS 9, and CS 11. The teachers pointed out that they were too busy teaching for their required 24 hours per week. They said they had informal discussions at schools; however, the meeting time was unclear.

The interview data indicated that the in-service training sponsored by the district panel of English subject teachers seemed not to be well attended due to teachers’ time constraints, the distance of the in-service training venue and their lack of motivation. A senior teacher in CS 1 contended that “I just participate in in-service training once a year, sometimes at school or in other schools. I sometimes became the photographer when there was a workshop about English language teaching and learning at school”. This seemed to indicate that his interest in English language learning development was not really positive. He further mentioned some reasons why teachers did not participate in in-service training such as (1) general topics about education, (2) presenters (mostly district supervisors), and (3) the very high number of participants.

To make matters worse, the districts had provided inadequate in-service training and even when provided sometimes teachers were too busy with their administrative work and teaching workload that was often stretched across more than one school so as to achieve their ‘minimum requirement’

(24 teaching hours per week) to gain a double salary in the teacher certification program. Any teacher development that might possibly have happened at schools with guidance from the principal and district supervisors hardly ever occurred and seemed to be nobody's responsibility.

Also, the government through provincial and district offices had already endeavoured to improve teachers' capacity by conducting in-service training programs which were not positively accepted by teachers. Teacher associations such as the Jogja English Teacher Association (JETA) together with the four universities (UNY, USD, UST and UAD) held seminars, conferences and workshops annually. The principals sometimes sent one or two teachers in turn to participate in such activities.

### 6.5 Teacher Certification Program

Illinois State Board of Education, National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (2010) stipulates that certification is a procedure whereby the state evaluates and reviews a teacher candidate's credentials and provides him/her with a license to teach. In the Indonesian context, the government introduced education reforms through the 2003 Education Law (Law No. 20/2003 on the National Education System) and the 2005 Teacher and Lecturer Law (Law No. 14/2005 on Teacher and Lecturer). The teachers' certification program, for example, is one of the quality controls instituted by the government for teachers to meet some basic requirements.

**Table 6.5: Components of Teachers' Certification Program**

No	Component	Competences			
		Pedagogy	Personal	Social	Professional
1	Academic qualifications	√			√
2	Pre-service and in-service training	√			√
3	Teaching experience	√	√		√
4	Planning and learning implementation	√			√
5	Principal and district supervisor assessment		√	√	
6	Academic achievement	√		√	√
7	Professional development	√			√
8	Participation in academic forum			√	√
9	Experience in the field of education and social relations		√	√	
10	Relevant awards for education	√	√	√	√

Source: Based on the guidelines of teacher certification program (2011)

The Indonesia Law No. 14/2005 states that a certificate is given to teachers who have achieved certain academic qualifications and competences as a teaching agent. MONE (2007) clarifies this further that a 'professional teacher' can be measured by ten components as seen in Table 6.5. Table shows that of the four competences, professional competence has the most focus followed by pedagogical, social and personal. This implied teachers, particularly English language teachers, need to have sufficient English language proficiency that would be used in teaching. This professional competence would also be used to develop teaching materials.

**Table 6.6: Cumulative Target for Teacher Certification Program to 2015 for Indonesia**

Year	%	Primary Education	Secondary Education	Number of Teachers	Number of Cumulative Teachers	Unit Cost for Certification Process	Unit Cost for Professional Incentives
2015	100	191,267	39,335	230,602	2,306,015	461,203	41,508,270
2014	90	191,267	39,335	230,602	2,075,414	461,203	37,357,443
2013	80	191,267	39,335	230,602	1,844,812	461,203	33,206,616
2012	70	191,267	39,335	230,602	1,614,211	461,203	29,055,789
2011	60	191,267	39,335	230,602	1,383,609	461,203	24,904,962
2010	50	191,267	39,335	230,602	1,153,008	461,203	20,754,135
2009	40	382,531	78,672	461,203	922,406	922,406	16,603,308
2008	20	219,957	50,796	270,753	461,203	541,506	8,301,654
2007	8.5	162,577	27,873	190,450	190,450	380,900	
<b>Total</b>		<b>1,912,667</b>	<b>393,348</b>	<b>2,306,015</b>			

Source: Overhead projection transparency provided by the Directorate of Teacher Profession as cited in Jalal, et al. (2009)

Concerning teacher certification program, the government through MONE improved the mechanism of teacher certification in 2008. The government established a quota for eligible teachers to attempt certification each year and declared that the teachers' certification program would be finished by 2015 (Table 6.6). According to the draft regulation accompanying Teacher Law No. 14/2005, the selection was based on the ranking – highest diploma, age and service period. So, after the quota was determined, each district identified teachers undertaking the certification according to (i) the 'best teachers' (expert, model) with a bachelor qualification, (ii) the most experienced/long-serving teachers with a bachelor qualification, (iii) with a minimum civil service rank of 3 (c), and (4) age (Jalal, et al., 2009, p. 87). In Yogyakarta, the total number of teachers to participate in certification program was 4,530 in 2008, 8,215 in 2009, 8,213 in 2010, and 6,520 in 2011.

The government stipulated that teachers achieve their certification with at least a bachelor degree (*Sarjana* – a four year qualification) and fulfil the ten components in Table 5.5. In the twelve case studies with 25 interviewed English language teachers, 11 were certified – 10 senior and 1 junior teachers; in other words, the number of certified teachers was 44 per cent. When the researcher asked why the other teachers had not gained their certification, their responses varied. In CS 7, the senior teacher said that her problem was she was not a full time teacher and taught in three schools. In CS 8, the two full time teachers were only senior high school graduates. At CS 9, the teachers said they had not been certified because of the limited district quota. The senior teacher in CS 2 had been teaching for 24 years but he had been unable to gain certification due to his low qualification (a two year English language program or Diploma 2). The 'junior' teacher with 24 years experience failed both portfolios (documentation) and his 90 hours training though he might again participate in the certification training in the following year.



**Table 6.7: ‘Certified’ English Teachers in the Twelve Case Studies (2011)**

Certification	CS 1		CS 2		CS 3		CS 4		CS 5		CS 6		CS 7		CS 8		CS 9		CS 10		CS 11		CS 12		Average			
Senior/Junior teachers	S	J	S	S	J	S	J	S	S	J	S	J	S	J	S	J	S	J	S	S	S	J	S	J	S	J	S	J
Teaching experience	21	2	21	24	24	11	2	29	16	5	14	10	16	5	7	1	36	3	13	12	22	13	1	6	4	17.8	6.3	
Certification	?		?			?		?	?		?	?	?						?	?		?			71	9		

The government set up the teacher certification program in 2008 to raise teachers’ professionalism through a portfolio (documentation) or 90 hours in-service training (*Pendidikan Latihan Profesi Guru* – PLPG) mentored by lecturers of both public and private universities in Yogyakarta, such as Yogyakarta State University (UNY), Sanata Dharma University (USD), Sarjanawiyata Tamansiswa University (UST) and Ahmad Dahlan University (UAD). However, the performance of most certified teachers in the twelve case studies was little different from those without certification. “We do not know whether teachers change or not in their own habitat after they have finished participating in 90 hours in-service training (PLPG). It is only a government project. Only a small number of teachers implement what they get from the program, the previous vice education ministry said”, as one senior lecturer said. Overall, the issue regarding the standard of the in-service training of teacher certification program needs to be urgently addressed.

## 6.6 Teacher Workload

A very important issue to emerge from the twelve case studies data was that of teacher workload – an issue that has not received the attention it deserves. The government stipulates the number of the total teaching hours for a school is 32 per week (one class time = 40 minutes) – 10 compulsory subjects, local content subjects and self-development subjects. The compulsory minimum workload of each full-time teacher in class is 24 hours, with a maximum of 40 teaching hours per week. Principals are required to teach 6 hours and 12 for vice principal or coordinator of library and laboratory (Indonesian Constitution No. 14/2005, Government Regulation No. 74/2008 and MONE Regulation No. 39/2009). The government clearly stated that teachers’ duties cover:

- (1) Planning a lesson
- (2) Teaching in class
- (3) Assessing the teaching process
- (4) Guiding students
- (5) Doing additional tasks to support the teaching and learning process

Additionally, the MONE Regulation No. 22/2006 and the curriculum documentation of the 12 case studies clearly stated that to achieve the graduate standard, the students’ teaching and learning are divided into three:

- (1) Teaching and learning in class (*kegiatan tatap muka*)  
This is an interaction process between a teacher and students in class with one teaching hour equivalent to 40 minutes



(2) Structured tasks/activities (*penugasan terstruktur*)

In-depth learning to achieve the competence standard and basic competence that is managed by teachers, for instance, remediation and enrichment

(3) Independent activity (*kegiatan mandiri*)

In-depth learning to achieve the competence standard and basic competence that is organized by students.

Based on the data, the teachers in the twelve case studies seemed to fulfill their 24 hours teaching in class as required. As a result, this made them very busy for the whole week to ‘prepare’ and teach students even though teachers still need to think what tasks or activities (for remediation and enrichment) which spend not over 50 per cent of the teaching hour in class. Thus, individual assessment of each student in the twelve case studies seemed to be ignored since the teachers had insufficient time to do so.

With the 24 teaching hours in class as the minimum requirement for certification and administrative monthly and yearly plans (documentations), most teachers had very little time to develop their own competencies, particularly the professional and pedagogical aspects. These activities hampered their aspiration to improve themselves. The principal of CS 10 remarked,

“Full time teachers find difficulty with more administrative work. For example, there are 35 kinds of issue of red tape documents for each subject which need to be completed such as writing the syllabus, the lesson plan, the monthly, weekly, daily programs for each class she/he teaches, including the assessment and the learning evaluation as well, and this takes a lot of time for the teachers to do such work.”

Based on limited class room observation, a maximum of 32 students in a class was generally good, though in some schools (CS 2 and CS 3), it was over 35 students per class while there were only 5 – 10 students in CS 12. This class size indicated that parents responded positively to some schools due to superior achievement of students in the national examination and ‘the religion-base’ of the school. On average, most schools in Yogyakarta were organized in accordance with the standard process, stipulating 1:32 as average class size (MONE Regulation No. 41/2007).

English was taught for six hours on average with forty minutes per hour, so the total time for English language learning for most schools in the classroom was six hours per week per class that, in the government perspective, is only 40 minutes. It represented 14 per cent of the total weekly class time of 44 hours (Table 6.8); except in CS 8, English took eight per cent of the total 46 hours. The compulsory workload minimum in class of each teacher was 24 and maximum 40 teaching hours. Almost all teachers in the twelve case studies had already achieved their minimum teaching requirement even though some (CS 3 and CS 4) taught more than 24 hours per week.

**Table 6.8: English Language Teacher X Teaching Hours**

CS	No. of	Eng. Teach.	No. Of Eng.	Eng. Teacher Workload				Taught	Total Teach.	English	School
	Separate	(Hour per	Teacher	(Hour/week)				Eng. Hour	In Curr	Percentage	Location
	Classes	week)	(FT + PT)	*P	**VP	***FT	****PT	per week	(Hour/week)	Hour to Curr	
1	12	6	3+1	6	0	48	18	72	43	13.95	Urban
2	12	6	3+1	6	24	24	18	72	47	12.77	Urban
3	18	5	3+1	0	0	84	6	90	40	12.50	City
4	30	5.57	5+1	0	0	140	27	167	42	13.25	City
5	18	6	4+1	0	0	96	12	108	44	13.64	Rural
6	18	6	4+1	0	0	84	24	108	49	12.24	Urban
7	6	6	1+3	6	0	0	30	36	44	13.64	Rural
8	4	4	0+4	0	0	0	16	16	46	8.70	Urban
9	12	6	3+0	0	0	72	0	72	42	14.29	Rural
10	6	6	1+0	0	0	36	0	36	46	13.04	Rural
11	15	4.67	3+0	0	0	70	0	70	41	11.38	Urban
12	3	5	0+3	0	0	0	15	15	43	11.63	Rural

\* Principal \*\* Vice principal or laboratory coordinator

\*\*\* Full time teacher, \*\*\*\*Part time teacher

Table 6.8 shows that all schools had a sufficient number of teachers; however, their busy time impacted upon any aspirations to improve their professional skills. Most teachers said that they wanted to improve their knowledge of English language teaching but their teaching hours forced them to be at school.

Furthermore, two coordinators of district panels of English subject teachers contended that teacher participation in the monthly meeting was lacking though the time had been set up and agreed to at the principals' forum (*Musyawarah Kerja Kepala Sekolah – MKKS*) and by the Head of the District Education Office. "Our meeting could not be after school hours; we set up the time, for example, Wednesday morning about ten o'clock. However, the vice principal who managed teaching hours still made English teachers teach on that day; so they cannot participate in our meeting. Those who come are teachers who are fully supported by the principal and they are eager to improve her teaching", the coordinator in one of the districts said.

In addition, teachers in rural areas had problems with the distant location of such activities – most were too busy with their teaching or their interest was lukewarm. The teacher in CS 7 said that she actively participated in any in-service training conducted by the district panel of subject teachers; however, in 2008, such activities were replaced by workshops that rarely happened. This might have happened because the location of the schools was far from the district office. The only English teacher living close to another province (CS 10) acknowledged, "I never participate in in-service training held by the district or teachers' association. This is because the school is a private

school and too far from the main road, or the district perhaps does not understand that there is a school here”. As well, she also noted that the school had not received any invitation letter to participate in any kind of seminar or workshop.

Further evidence relating to her lukewarm interest was when the researcher mentioned an invitation to a workshop conducted by the British Council, free of charge and equipped with various modules as well as snack and lunch. She did not attend, “I was very busy on that day and the workshop was far from the school”. When the researcher came to interview the teacher, she remarked, “I will be at the district to attend the meeting regarding the national examination”. In fact, she again did not participate. This seemed to the researcher to be ‘reluctant’ about improving the teaching and learning. English teachers in CS 12 acknowledged that there had never been an invitation from the district or other institutions regarding in-service training for them. The senior teacher (CS 12) further said, “I am eager to participate in such activities but there are none. I just know from my ten day certification program that just finished last week that now teaching English is different”.

Furthermore, most teachers in rural areas face problems in the distance to their schools. Most teachers (CS 5) travelled about 38 kms one way from their homes, and teachers in CS 9 lived about 26 kms away. The coordinator of an English panel in a rural area added, “... the distance between the school and the district is far, about 40 kms (two hours travel) one way, by motorbikes passing sharp turnings and lack of public transport, so the teachers sometimes seemed to the researcher to be ‘lazy’ to attend or teachers sometimes were scheduled not to teach on that day but they needed to stay at school as ‘*guru piket*’ (substitute teacher)”. Put simply, teachers’ commitment to improve their capacity was lacking. The coordinator of panel subject teacher in rural area acknowledged teachers’ hesitancy to participate in in-service training.

Teachers in urban areas (CS 1, CS 2, CS 8, and CS 11) participated once or twice each year in seminars or workshops conducted by the district, and they were sent by the schools in turn. The teachers in general did not actively participate in such training because they were busy teaching at schools, and they thought the activities could not be implemented or sometimes the topics were too general and not specifically about English language (CS 1). In CS 6 teachers did not participate in training due to time pressures (junior teacher) and the senior teacher taught in two different districts which were very far apart. It happened similarly in CS 10. The district panel subject teacher had a monthly agenda to discuss English language teaching in the form of a ‘lesson study’ and attended by teachers in turn (CS 11). At CS 8, the senior teacher showed no interest in participating. He noted, “I actively participated in in-service training when I was ‘young’ and the training sessions were conducted by the district panel of subject teachers under MONE and MORA. Now is the time

for young teachers to participate in such training, I don't get a chance to go and nor did I want a chance to go".

The workload of teachers which seemed to be mostly overloaded did not significantly correlate to their salary. Teachers who had passed their certification program received their double salary every three or six months; those who were 'uncertified' received a very low salary. The school treasurer, alias the English teacher in CS 10, said casual teachers were paid based on their attendance, for example, when she/he taught ten hours per week, she/he deserved to receive a monthly payment of Rp 240,000,- or equal to AUD \$ 24. "The salary of a housemaid is much better than a casual teacher here", she said. A casual teacher in CS 12 remarked that he received Rp 750,000 (AUD \$ 75) per three months' teaching grade seven. This was insufficient to provide for his life as a 'student' previously and now as a casual teacher. This perhaps impacted on his intention to look for a better job and he had just started working in a medium-sized mobile phone provider company as an operator being paid considerably more. In this CS 12, most teachers lived about fifteen kilometres (1 hour) away on average, riding motorcycles to school and travelling through hilly terrain.

## **6.7 Summary**

Standards of pre-service and in-service training for teachers should be raised. Pre-service institutions need to address the issue of their curriculum, professional teaching and assessment as well as quality assurance of their teaching because they prepare teachers and candidate teachers to teach.

In terms of educational qualifications, most teachers (80 %) in the twelve case study schools held a bachelor degree majoring in English from either government or private universities with decades – long experience. Some actively participated in district and school panels of English subject teachers.

The problems faced by teachers on the ground varied and were intertwined. In terms of in-service training, the teachers' time availability and their motivation were still too low to maximize such opportunities to develop teachers' capacity. The coordinator of the subject teacher panel in the city acknowledged that teachers' participation in seminars or workshops conducted by the panel was generally very low even though the city access was relatively easy; while teachers in urban and rural areas had problems on distance and time availability.

Though teacher certification program has been launched, the impact of teaching performance was also in a big question when it related to student academic achievement. Teachers seemed to be more busy to teach rather than how to prepare their teaching in class as well as student assessment. Professional collegial initiatives supported by the district, provincial and central governments were conducted to improve teachers' professionalism; though its classroom impact was questionable.

## **CHAPTER 7**

### **EVALUATION OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CURRICULUM: CLASSROOM OBSERVATION OF THE ENGLISH TEACHERS**

Teachers as the agents of learning are at the central of curriculum implementation. When teachers can trigger students' motivation, their academic achievement will probably be improved. To bring this about, teachers need to work on their professional development, including that conducted by the government at district level or through teachers' associations. The knowledge that teachers gained would be then implemented in their teaching. This chapter describes the aims of teaching English according to the English teachers in the twelve case studies. The discussion regarding the teachers' competences (particularly pedagogical and professional), students' assessment, English language culture as well as teacher classroom instruction will be also outlined.

#### **7.1 English Language Teaching Aims of Teachers in the 12 Case Studies**

The English language teachers were asked about their teaching aims – almost all answered in terms of the national examination. The notion of communicative competence stipulated by the government in the form of competency standard and basic competence seemed to be an 'unfriendly and unknown' competence due to the national examination issue. So, the communication target that had been stipulated by the government was merely documented in the school curriculum.

The '*sosialisasi*' from central government and district about the implementation of the curriculum seemed not to have been achieved in the classrooms of the 2011/2012 academic year. Teachers focussed more on the national examination in Year 9. They even conducted extra classes after school for students in Year 8 and 9 to 'drill' students to answer questions which focused more on vocabulary items and grammar.

The only senior female teacher in CS 12 said that the aim of teaching English was 'to introduce the English language' though she could not clarify further what and how to introduce it (see Table 7.1). In reference to her educational background, she was a graduate of English language education in 2005 and had just finished participating in 90 hours in-service training of the teacher certification program. However, she did not understand the aim of teaching English in her rural school (CS 12).

**Table 7.1: Teaching Aims according to English Language Teachers: *In teaching the language, what are your overall aims?***

C S	Eng. Teacher		Aim of teaching English
	*M/F	**S/J	
1	M	S	To gain a good score in the national examination
	F	J	To communicate; however, for junior secondary level it is to obtain good grades in the national examination
2	F	S	To communicate as well as to prepare students to do the national examination
	M	S	To prepare students to do the national examination
	M	J	To succeed in the national examination
3	F	S	Four skills with the emphasis on reading and writing skills in order to gain a good score in the national examination
	F	S	To have a good score in the national examination
4	F	S	To communicate as well as to prepare them to succeed in the national examination
	M	S	Teaching English is to communicate, however, the school and parents ask teachers to teach students to get a good score; so, I teach them words and grammar because the national examination focuses more on lexical items and grammar
	M	J	To prepare them to pass the national examination
5	FS and FJ		To prepare students to do the national examination
6	M	S	For me teaching English is to make students speak fluently in English; for others, it is to prepare for the national examination
	F	J	To prepare students to do the national examination
7	F	S	To succeed in the national examination
	F	J	To prepare students to do the national examination
8	M	S	To gain a good score in the national examination
	F	J	To prepare students to do the national examination
9	FS and FJ		To prepare students to get good grades for the national examination and simple English instruction for students' daily activities
10	FS		To achieve better results for the national examination. The vocabulary items and pronunciation would be emphasized, not grammar or the structure of the text
11	F	S	To gain good scores in the national examination
	M	J	To gain good score in the national examination
12	F	S	To introduce the English language
	M	J	To prepare students to do the national examination

\*M (Male), F (Female) \*\*S (Senior), J (Junior); In CS 5 and CS 9, the teachers were interviewed together

Some teachers were of the very clear opinion that they felt more comfortable with the 1994 curriculum with its inclusion of grammar-based teaching though the curriculum clearly stated the aim of communicative competence. In fact, the lessons observed by the researcher were generally begun by discussing a text taken from the textbook based on a theme (topic-based) followed by English grammar explanation in the sentence-level based. An English senior teacher as well as the principal of CS 2, for example, said, “The KTSP curriculum is good as it is related to students’ characteristics in the school; for myself, the English curriculum is difficult to understand because it is very general. That is why I teach students the English subject with the 1994 curriculum which emphasizes English grammar and vocabulary”. The teachers in CS 9 said that they had heard that in the 2004 and 2006 versions, grammar was not taught though they still taught it because it was important. “We feel it is good English teaching using the 1994 curriculum because it is specific and based on a theme. The 2006 curriculum is too general with unclear themes; the focus was text, not the theme, so we feel confused, no limitation of the texts, such as description or recount text for

Years 7, 8 and 9; it's simply description text. It is good perhaps but the theme is explained, so we (teachers and students) all are not confused", remarked teachers in CS 9.

Generally, all teachers aimed at their students gaining good English scores in the national examination. A senior teacher in CS 10, for example, clearly stated that she got 'pressure' from both the principal and the head of the district education office to achieve better results in the national examination. Other English teachers felt the same pressure but they did not explicitly say so. Thus, due to the national examination, teachers seemed to give reading texts with the emphasis on vocabulary items. In seven case studies (CS 1, CS 2, CS 4, CS 5, CS 6, CS 10 and CS 12), the teachers emphasized teaching vocabulary items and text structure and eventually asked students to answer a set of comprehension questions from the textbook. It seemed to indicate that teachers ignored the notion of communicative competence. "The development of the curriculum is not followed by teachers' understanding of the teaching paradigm; so teachers 'misconceive' the curriculum and drove them to have '*malpraktek*' in class", said Emilia (2011, p. 3). So, though 44 per cent had been certified, the notion of communicative competence stipulated by the government seemed to be ignored in their teaching in class.

## 7.2 The Teachers' Competences

Regarding English teaching, in most provinces the government had been previously conducting in-service training for district supervisors as well as teachers. This training particularly was aimed to train teachers in understanding the 2006 curriculum (KTSP) concerning graduate competency, content and process standards. This was done to develop teachers' capacity in responding to the significant shift in the English language curriculum or English language syllabus.

The government through MONE has stipulated criteria for being '*professional*' teachers (*Permendiknas* No. 16/2007) in terms of qualifications and competences. As clearly stated in the Regulation, teachers are required to have four competences – personal, social, professional, and pedagogical. The following are the teacher competences outlined by the government in the context of English teaching:

- (1) Personal competence deals with the way teachers behave, such as having good commitment, discipline, honesty, and responsibility
- (2) Social competence refers to the social, emotional and cognitive skills and behaviours that teachers need for successful social relations concerning how they interact with colleagues, students and other parties
- (3) Professional competence concerns having a good capacity related to the language itself such as the macro and micro skills of the English language



- (4) Pedagogical competence deals with possessing the skills of teaching strategies from planning up to evaluating their teaching and student learning

Besides the personal and social competences, teachers are required to have sufficient pedagogical and professional competences. The former pedagogical relates to possessing skills which includes (1) designing syllabus, lesson plan, teaching material, media, assessment etc., (2) managing teaching and learning process, and (3) conducting evaluation of the process of teaching and learning while the latter relates to having knowledge of the fields such as macro skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) and micro skills (vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, spelling and the like) (Spratt et al., 2005). Though the great majority were graduates of English language education programs, in fact, it seemed they experienced significant problems in English language teaching methodology, particularly in engaging students to participate in class activities. Some teachers blamed students' low motivation; in fact, as mentioned previously, 70 per cent students said they liked to learn English.

### 7.2.1 Pedagogical Competence

Of the four competences, pedagogical competence seemed to be a problem for most teachers. Based on the interviews and documentation analysis (syllabus and lesson plan) as well as classroom observation regarding their understanding of the curriculum, most seemed to have problems. Almost all wrote their syllabus and lesson plans according to content and process standards (*standar isi* and *proses*) stipulated by the government through the MONE Regulation No. 22/2006 and No. 41/2007. The stages in teaching are pre-teaching (*pendahuluan*), whilst-teaching (*kegiatan inti – eksplorasi, elaborasi* and *konfirmasi*), and closing (*kegiatan penutup*).

However, what happened was very different. Teachers borrowed the syllabus and lesson plans prepared by the district panel of subject teachers (MGMP). They had a 'copy paste' approach and those were for the purpose of curriculum documentation and 'limited' classroom observation done by district supervisors. Most teachers stated that they 'created a new lesson plan' when there was classroom observation by supervisors who sometimes were from a different subject background. An incident happened when the researcher was about to observe the junior teacher in CS 5. She said proudly, "I just finished writing my lesson plan five minutes ago before you came to the classroom". This could be seen from her 'handwritten' lesson plan; while other teachers in the twelve case studies preferred to give one or two samples of their lesson plans from their 'old files'.

A senior teacher of CS 1 said that he got confused about how to teach communicative competence to students and he further placed the blame on incompetent trainers who were mostly district supervisors with a large number of participants and it was done by explaining without practicing.

For senior teachers in CS 2, CS 3 and CS 4, the data seemed to indicate they had no problems, but observation showed that the students did not participate in class. The students listened to the teachers' explanation, followed by tasks from textbooks. The two English teachers in CS 5 noted that they had no problem teaching text types in the KTSP curriculum except for the lack of teaching materials or examples of texts. However, observation showed that the students had no class participation and the teachers dominated the class with their explanation of structure and vocabularies of texts.

In CS 2, when the researcher asked about the teaching stages in class, a casual teacher said verbatim in English, "... greetings, pray, check the roll, discuss homework, explain new materials, not too long, and eventually test written on the whiteboard or from textbook". In the classroom, he did what he had already explained. Despite his inadequate knowledge about teaching methodology, he had been teaching in secondary schools since 1987.

A senior teacher in CS 3 noted that the teaching stages stipulated by the government made her confused. So, she wrote her lesson plans in accordance with what the district supervisor asked such as writing EEK (*Eksplorasi*, *Elaborasi*, and *Konfirmasi*) though it was merely for the sake of the required curriculum document. In class, teachers in this CS 3 had three teaching stages (pre-teaching, whilst-teaching and closing). In CS 4, the two male teachers clearly said that they had a copy paste syllabus and lesson plans from the district panel of subject teachers in which the coordinator was a senior teacher in the same school. They further said that what happened in class was sometimes different from what they had previously planned.

The two female teachers in CS 5 had different stages, the senior said she had four stages as suggested by Hammond et al. (1992) – Building Knowledge of Field (BKOF), Modelling of Text (MOT), Joint Construction of Text (JCOT) and Independent Construction of Text (ICOT) – as taught by trainers in her certification program whereas the junior teacher noted her trainers asked her to have three stages (Presentation, Practice, Production (PPP)). Both of them had no idea of *Elaborasi*, *Eksplorasi* and *Konfirmasi* (EEK) and were unsure how to write it or even to implement it. The junior teacher in CS 6 simply said that she had no idea regarding teaching stages. What she taught was vocabulary items, grammar and pronunciation. While the senior teacher contended that he let students listen to him and this was what he called the 'communicative approach', meaning students just listened, teachers were active in communicating. It meant that the teacher had little understanding concerning teaching methodology.

In CS 7, the senior teacher said, “My teaching procedure is begun by greetings, explain and evaluation (do the exercises) and conclusion”. The two teachers in CS 8 noted that their teaching stages were greeting, pray, check the roll, explain and do the tasks. Teachers in CS 9 remarked,

“The government has asked teachers to have 4 stages suggested by Hammond et al.; namely, Building Knowledge of Text, Modelling, Joint Construction and Independent Construction of texts though we still do our three steps (Presentation, Practice and Production). Now it becomes EEK (Elaboration, Exploration and Confirmation) which is difficult to understand. We eventually simply change PPP to EEK, the content all similar. We change it when there is classroom observation by supervisors and we add character building and moral values to the lesson plan. The supervisors are happy when we state it all on the lesson plan though we are not sure how it is implemented in practice in class.”

The lone English teacher in a rural school (CS 10) noted that she had no idea regarding teaching methodology. She simply said, “For me, I have Presentation, Practice and Production. I have no idea of BKOF, MOT, JCOT and ICOT in the 2004 curriculum as well as EEK in the 2006 curriculum. I sometimes asked my friends regarding issues in English language teaching. My syllabus and lesson plans are all from my friend teaching in one of the government junior high schools”. The teachers in CS 11 also had unclear teaching stages in class. They said that they needed first to motivate students to learn English through teaching media in class though classroom observation showed minimum class participation. The worst English teaching and learning happened in CS 12. The teachers simply had no idea about teaching methodology though one of them had just finished participating in a 10 day in-service training for the teacher certification program.

Almost all teachers experienced problems in teaching. Due to such confusion, what they did sometimes in class was to bring the ‘copy paste’ syllabus or lesson plan but they followed the content of the textbook or they simply selected what texts were to be taught and asked students to answer the questions. In writing indicators for lesson plans, teachers were in doubt about what they meant. Teachers decided upon indicators based on the examples given by the government or panel of subject teachers designed for them. It seemed teachers were happy and gained their self confidence, though they seemed not to fully understand about standard competence and basic competence stipulated by the government. To make it worse, almost all syllabus and lesson plans were devised by the district panel of subject teachers. Teachers had the syllabus and lesson plans for documentation rather than implementation in class. When they created it, for example, the syllabus and lesson plan were for the sake of mandatory documentation and any classroom observation done by the district supervisors which happened very rarely, not even once in a semester. Teachers found it difficult to develop their professionalism due to lack of supervision and of in-service training delivered by the districts. According to Tipka (2004) and Chodidjah (2004), many teachers in Indonesia were still using outdated methods, they were insufficiently trained in

English teaching methodology, had very little training in English teaching, have insufficient English proficiency and knowledge on how to select and develop materials including the media resources.

### 7.2.2 Professional Competence

In response to questions about their English language proficiency, the teachers generally replied vaguely 'sufficient'. The following data presents the teachers' English proficiency based on their own self rating, the interview data on language usage and on classroom observation of their proficiency by the researcher.

**CS 1:** The senior teacher with a master qualification in linguistics said that he was good in reading and writing. His writing skills were particularly in evidence; he had already published various English comics and *English for Children* for kindergarten and primary schools-aged children. He liked to read English texts such as *Reader's Digest* that he bought for his family. Regarding listening and speaking, he said his speaking skill was sufficient because he sometimes spoke in English in his family. However, when interviewed, he always spoke in Bahasa Indonesia. Classroom observation showed he 'mixed' the languages, English and then translated into Bahasa Indonesia. The junior teacher said firstly that she was not able to give a self rating; her answer regarding the four English language skills was answered in low variety Bahasa Indonesia '*cukup saja*' (sufficient) and that she was fine in reading. Her responses in the interview were in Bahasa Indonesia and her language of classroom instruction was 'mixed', English and then translated in Bahasa Indonesia.

**CS 2:** The 'junior' teacher who had had 24 years' teaching experience always spoke in Bahasa Indonesia when interviewed and when he taught in class. He responded in a 'doubtful' intonation regarding his listening skill. He said, "*kalau mendengarkan teks berbahasa Inggris...ya...saya bisa* (if I listen to English text...ya...I can). He also pointed out that his capacity in writing was good but 'good' here meant he was able to listen to English expressions and then write them down. A senior teacher clearly noted that his English was not good though he had 26 years of teaching experience. "*Saya sudah tua tapi kemampuan Bahasa Inggris saya masih kurang*" (I am old but my English is still bad)", he remarked. Also, he noted that he was unwilling to be observed and asked the researcher to observe another senior teacher. These two teachers with more than 20 years' teaching experience spoke in Bahasa Indonesia both in the interview and during the class.

**CS 3:** The senior female teacher felt confident regarding her English language skills except she felt she could improve her English by writing an English textbook for the school managed by this

Catholic foundation. When the researcher asked about her survey schedule, she said, “I lied when I did my self rating. I said all was good because I don’t want my students to read and think that their English teacher capacity is not good”, then she laughed. The junior teacher spoke in English at the beginning with the researcher and pointed out that she found difficulty when speaking with native speakers; however, she was good in listening to a non-native speaker speaking in English. When teaching, they spoke in English and translated directly in Bahasa Indonesia.

**CS 4:** This junior teacher clearly said that his speaking, reading and writing of English were good. He self-rated himself with 8 in speaking out of 10. When interviewed, he responded in English with mispronounced words. In class, he spoke in Bahasa Indonesia and sometimes in Javanese even though he taught the international class. A male senior teacher noted that his English language skills were sufficient. He said, “*Saya menilai diri sendiri untuk English skills saya tidak berlebihan, biasa saja*” (I assess my English language skill was alright, not bad). His classroom instruction was in Bahasa Indonesia. Another senior female teacher acknowledged that her English language skills were fine except for her speaking and writing skills. She said, “my spoken and written skills were not much, daily spoken is OK *tapi kalau topiknya spesifik* about something *gitu, saya masih hesitate*”. Her speaking skill was shown to be good when she explained the teaching material and engaged students in class. She had been an English teachers’ coordinator in the city for more than ten years and once had been one of six candidates from the Yogyakarta province to be a master teacher who was sent to Singapore.

**CS 5:** Both teachers agreed that their listening and writing skills were not good. In the interview, the senior teacher tried always to respond to the questions in English with some mistakes in pronunciation. When the researcher asked about their English language proficiency, she said in English, “We are not accustomed to say I’m good. I hope....hm...not very good, ya sufficient for teaching the students”. For these teachers, listening was the most difficult skill to learn and to teach. The junior teacher preferred to be interviewed with the senior teacher. The researcher found it difficult to get ideas from her because she seemed to repeat what had been said by the senior teacher though the interview was conducted in Bahasa Indonesia. This junior teacher eventually noted, “I’m very poor in speaking and writing, also listening skills”. She tended to keep silent and gave very few comments regarding her English language proficiency. It was perhaps due to her ‘junior’ position and the previous experience with the researcher in the certification program. In class, their classroom instruction was dominated by Bahasa Indonesia. When the teachers spoke in English, they translated into Bahasa Indonesia directly.

**CS 6:** The male senior teacher spoke fluently in class though he often said ‘pardon’ when he spoke. In the class, he tended to speak in English though some students at the back made a noisy outcry

'protesting' at his English. They said, "Please speak in Bahasa Indonesia or Javanese". It seemed to indicate that he wanted the researcher to think his English was good, so he always spoke in English explaining 'unclear teaching materials'. Nevertheless, in his self-rating, he pointed out that his listening, reading and writing were not good except for his speaking skill. The junior teacher responded in Bahasa Indonesia when interviewed and she was in doubt about doing her self-rating. She said, "My English proficiency is sufficient", though in the classroom observation, she was confused as to what to teach. She wrote some vocabulary items from an English textbook, then wrote it in Bahasa Indonesia.

**CS 7:** The female senior teacher said that her writing was good and in the questionnaire she wrote that her four English language skills were sufficient. In her actual teaching, she spoke fluently in English and tried to engage students to participate actively. In contrast, a female junior teacher remarked that her English was bad. This might be because of her 12<sup>th</sup> semester student status at a Yogyakarta state university. She responded to all questions in Bahasa Indonesia and taught also in Bahasa Indonesia. The principal also commented about his English teachers. He said, "The English language teachers here are mostly young female teachers and they are really good in teaching English even though one of them is in the twelfth semester of her college course." The reality proved to be otherwise for the junior teacher.

**CS 8:** The senior teacher pointed out that his speaking skill was good though his pronunciation was not really good. He said in Bahasa Indonesia, "*Saya terbiasa sejak dulu jadi guide, kalau untuk pronounciationnya, mohon maaf, kacau...ya tau sama tau lah...* (I used to be a guide, though my pronunciation, I'm sorry, you know...). On listening, reading and writing, he said it was sufficient. The junior female teacher responded to the questions in English with lots of mistakes on pronunciation but she kept speaking in English. She said that she was eager to improve her English, particularly her grammar. In the class, she tried to engage students to speak in English although she sometimes spoke in Bahasa Indonesia when there was a difficult word in her explanation.

**CS 9:** Both teachers who opted to be interviewed at the same time clearly noted that their reading and writing skills were sufficient compared to their listening and speaking skills. They said that their listening and speaking were not really good because they rarely taught those two skills due to students' low motivation and also the national examination. The medium of instruction was in Bahasa Indonesia. When the senior teacher spoke in English, she automatically translated in Bahasa Indonesia. The senior teacher remarked,

"I cannot speak English in class because the students do not understand me and if they don't understand, their motivation becomes worse. They often say, "...mam...mam...what do you want to say? Please speak in Javanese or Bahasa Indonesia, not English."

She further said she spoke in Bahasa Indonesia when she concluded the grammar and the structure of a text.

**CS 10:** The lone English teacher of this Islamic based school believed that her English knowledge was not sufficient. She said, “*Karena dasar pendidikan saya SPG (Sekolah Pendidikan Guru), untuk mendengarkan saya sangat kurang, kalo berbicara in English dengan teman, ya standard dah, bahasa Inggris saya tidak begitu ketinggalan dahulu, kelemahan saya pada listening, membaca cukup, menulis kurang, saya tidak pernah menulis, paling teks pendek untuk siswa* (because my educational qualification was from SPG (senior high school for teachers) my listening skill is bad, speaking English with friends, ya standard; my English previously was not left behind. My reading skill is sufficient. I never write texts in English. When I write it is just a simple text for my students)”. When interviewed, she responded to the questions in Bahasa Indonesia and as well her language of instruction in class was the same.

**CS 11:** The senior teacher who had been teaching for 13 years remarked that her reading and writing skills were good but not her listening and speaking skills. In class, when the teacher spoke in English, the students kept silent; but some said, “Yes....No....I don’t know”. The teacher acknowledged, “It’s difficult for me to speak in English. The students simply respond ‘yes, no, I don’t know’. They know what I say but it’s difficult for them to respond in English. That’s why I teach mostly in Bahasa Indonesia”. This indicated that the teacher failed to use English as the medium of instruction and she blamed this more on students’ inability to respond in English. When the researcher interviewed the teacher, she tended to use English and her English was quite good with some minor mistakes in grammar and pronunciation. It seemed to indicate that she had not made efforts to have the students engage with an English learning environment. The junior teacher pointed out that his reading and writing skills were good. Even though he was a fresh graduate, he had insufficient knowledge about English language teaching, including communicative competence, curriculum, syllabus and lesson plans. He said that he always asked his senior teachers and made lesson plans together with them. Based on the observation, both teachers taught English in Bahasa Indonesia. They claimed that it would be easier for the students to understand.

**CS 12:** The senior teacher who had just finished participating in a 90 hour in-service training for teacher certification noted that her reading skill was good compared to the other skills. She believed that her listening and writing were bad. The junior teacher who had just finished his pre-service training course remarked that his speaking, reading and writing were fine while his listening was sufficient. Classroom observation in this small private school indicated that both teachers always spoke in Bahasa Indonesia and sometimes in Javanese.



In the twelve case studies, the responses from survey and interview schedules revealed that most teachers seemed to have very real doubts regarding their own competence; most seemed to say 'sufficient' which meant 'so so' indicating that they were doubtful or might be shy about their own competence. Even when some said 'good', it was for the purpose of 'the image' of being a teacher particularly to students. A senior teacher (CS 3) said that she was afraid that her students would see the survey schedule and students think their teachers were incompetent. The language usage in interview showed that they felt more comfortable using Bahasa Indonesia which might also indicate their limited English skill level.

Following the classroom observation, almost all teachers blamed their students' incompetence that drove them to use Bahasa Indonesia and Javanese to communicate in class. When English was used, the teachers directly translated the words/sentences into Bahasa Indonesia. They said that Bahasa Indonesia was to ease their students' understanding of the teaching material. Some said when they spoke in English, the students' motivation became worse. This indicated that many teachers blamed students' low motivation when they spoke in English for classroom instruction.

Regarding teacher competence for the 2006 curriculum, the interview and observation data seemed to indicate that they mostly had inadequate knowledge. The target of the curriculum was communicative competence covering all four skills, and the curriculum document of each school (2<sup>nd</sup> or 3<sup>rd</sup> chapter of the curriculum document) that firstly was written and provided by the central government said the same things. In fact, based on the interview and questionnaire given to English teachers, their understanding varied. The following section shows English teachers' capacity concerning macro and micro skills.

**CS 1:** The senior teacher clarified the point that reading was the most important skill to be taught followed by writing, listening and speaking; the important language features were vocabulary items, grammar and structure with pronunciation as less important. In fact, based on his lesson plan and class observation, this senior teacher did not teach grammar to the students. Rather, he emphasized more students' reading comprehension, while in the junior teacher's perspective, all skills were important and grammar and text structure should be taught by the teacher. Based on classroom observation, these two teachers focused their teaching on the text structure and comprehension questions.

**CS 2:** The teacher who had been teaching since 1987 in secondary schools said, "Competency-based curriculum and school-based curriculum now is confusing, it's difficult to understand for both teachers and students, including myself". His perspective on English language teaching was (1) listening was the most important skill to be taught though he himself tended to speak in Bahasa



Indonesia and never presented or modelled ‘listening skill material’, (2) vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation should be taught; however, he himself never taught pronunciation and he sometimes mispronounced the vocabulary items. The other English language teacher with 24 years’ teaching experience noted that speaking English was the most important skill to achieve communicative competence, but for junior high school, he focused on vocabulary items to gain a good score in the national examination; however, the crucial thing regarding English language teaching in this school was how to motivate students to learn. In terms of English teaching, this teacher seemed to have inadequate knowledge regarding the English language teaching paradigm. He said that he started to create his lesson based on a theme or topic rather than basic competences.

**CS 3:** The junior teacher focused her teaching on spoken language (oracy) and then literacy (reading and writing). She wrote in English, “In my opinion, spoken communication takes more places (situation) (sic), so it’s more important”. In fact, data showed that she emphasized reading skills that aimed at gaining a good score in the national examination. It seemed to indicate she felt in doubt about the aim of teaching English to junior high school students though she was a fresh graduate and had been teaching for two years in this school and two years in an informal English class before. To her, teaching vocabulary items, pronunciation and grammar were more important than teaching the structure of the text. The senior teacher, however, remarked that reading should be given the first priority followed by writing, speaking and listening but they would be taught in an integrated way. The features which were important according to this senior teacher were vocabulary items, grammar, pronunciation and the structure of texts.

**CS 4:** The three teachers had similar perceptions in terms of English language teaching (see Table 7.3). They said that the macro skill to be taught was speaking though they clearly noted the teaching aim was to gain good grades for the national examination that covered only reading and writing, not listening and speaking.

**Table 7.2: English Teachers’ View of English Language Skills and Features: CS 4**

No	Topics	Senior Female Teacher	Senior Male Teacher	Junior Male Teacher
1.	Skills	1. Speaking and Reading 2. Listening and Writing	1. Speaking 2. Listening 3. Reading 4. Writing	1. Speaking 2. Listening, Reading, and Writing
2.	Language Features	1. Grammar and vocabulary items 2. Pronunciation and Structure	1. Vocabulary items 2. Pronunciation 3. Grammar 4. Structure	1. Vocabulary items and Pronunciation 2. Grammar and Structure

In terms of language features, the senior female teacher contended that grammar and vocabulary were more important than pronunciation. The three interviewed teachers maintained that their aim in teaching was dictated by the national examination and the limited observation data indicated the teachers discussed reading texts. This implied teachers' inconsistency regarding macro and micro skills and they seemed to relate to the national examination.

**CS 5:** The female senior and junior English teachers said that the most important skills were reading and writing followed by speaking and listening. Language features that were important were grammar, vocabulary items, pronunciation and the structure of a text. "We find it difficult to teach speaking to students. We create the texts and write it on the whiteboard. We then ask students on the left to be A and students on the right to be B. They read the dialogue. Most dialogues basically are taken from the textbooks", said this senior teacher. Additionally, they found it difficult to find reading texts for their teaching material as well as for assessment.

**CS 6:** The female junior teacher believed that listening was the most important skill followed by reading, writing and speaking. She further mentioned that vocabulary items were the most important language feature followed by pronunciation, grammar and the structure of a text. The male senior teacher considered that English skills should be taught separately; listening was the most important subject to teach followed by speaking, reading and writing. Grammar and vocabulary items would be more important rather than pronunciation and the structure of a text.

**CS 7:** The senior teacher said that listening, reading and writing are the three important skills followed by speaking though according to the principal she had excellent English speaking skills and that was the reason why the principal asked her to be a permanent teacher in this school. Based on the observation, she always spoke in English but translated it into Bahasa Indonesia directly. The junior teacher sequenced skills as listening, speaking, reading and writing. Regarding language features, the senior said that all (grammar, vocabularies, pronunciation and structure) were important whereas the junior teacher noted vocabulary was of primary importance followed by grammar, pronunciation and the structure of the texts.

**CS 8:** English teaching was divided into grammar, listening/speaking, reading and writing. So one teacher was responsible for one skill, and just one skill. This format was totally unique to this school. Table 7.3 shows the English teachers' workload:

**Table 7.3: Profile of the English Teaching Workload**

No	Teacher	Feature	Teach. Hour	Teaching Year		
				7	8	9
1.	A (a full time senior)	English	4	-	-	√
2.	B (a full time junior)	Grammar	4	√	√	-
3.	C	Reading & Writing	4	√	√	-
4.	D	Listening & Speaking	4	√	√	-

Senior teacher A taught only Year Nine to prepare the students to do the national examination while other teachers had responsibility for four hours with one language feature/skill. This workload showed ‘the uncommon division’ of English language teaching. Such division might be the only one across junior high schools in Yogyakarta particularly in the twelve case studies. In terms of English language skills, the junior female teacher said that speaking was the most important skill followed by listening, reading and writing; and they were taught in an integrated way. Concerning language features, she further mentioned that vocabulary items were more important than pronunciation, grammar and the structure of a text; whereas the male senior teacher said, “The four skills are important because language is as a means of communication, and these skills have been taught separately”. In terms of language features, he believed that vocabulary items and pronunciation should be taught rather than grammar and the structure of a text. This would indicate that the principal and the English teachers did not have sufficient information about the English teaching paradigm though they claimed that the school had previously implemented the competency based curriculum. “We implemented the competency based curriculum in 2006; at that time, we still did not completely understand it. Then it changed to the new curriculum that we have just implemented now in this school”, added the principal.

**CS 9:** Both English teachers acknowledged that reading and writing were more important than listening and speaking because of the national examination. In terms of language features, they put pronunciation and the structure of a text first followed by the vocabulary items and grammar, all taught in an integrated way. They were confused whether or not to teach grammar in class.

**CS 10:** The teacher believed that reading was the most important skill followed by writing, speaking and listening and she believed that all skills be taught in an integrated way. According to the teacher, the reading skill should be focused since the national examination was about texts. So, the vocabulary items and pronunciation would be emphasized, not grammar or the structure of the text. Such a view signified that the teacher had insufficient knowledge regarding English language teaching and the national examination. She further said that she got ‘pressure’ to achieve better results for the national examination; thus, she ignored other skills.

**CS 11:** Both teachers agreed that listening, speaking and writing were more important compared to reading; they illustrated how the learning process began with listening and imitating. In fact, data interview showed that reading was the skill emphasized to prepare students to face the national examination. As well, they believed that vocabulary items were the most important feature followed by grammar, pronunciation and the structure of a text.

**CS 12:** This junior teacher believed that speaking was the most important skill followed by writing, listening and reading. They were taught separately. It seemed to indicate that what the teacher taught was not in line with what he thought. The speaking skill was important, however, he never spoke in English nor taught language expressions to the students. He further mentioned that vocabulary items were the most important compared to grammar, pronunciation and structure of a text. The senior female teacher believed that all skills are important except writing, and the language features which are important are grammar, vocabulary items, pronunciation and, lastly, the structure of a text. However, she had no idea whether those were to be taught in an integrated way or by teaching the four skills separately. This signified that she felt unsure about how to teach. It was clearly seen in the class observation in which she did not know what to teach and it was clear she had only prepared just before coming to the class.

**Table 7.4: The Sequence of Macro and Micro Skills of the 12 Case Studies Based on Survey**

Case Study	English Teacher		The Sequence of Macro Skills				The Sequence of Micro Skills			
	Male/female	Senior/Junior	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Vocabulary	Grammar	Pronunciation	Structure
1	M	S	3	4	1	2	1	2	4	3
	F	J	1	2	3	4	3	1	4	2
2	F	S	3	4	1	2	1	3	4	2
	M	S	1	2	3	4	NA			
	M	J	1	2	3	4	2	1	3	4
3	F	S	4	3	1	2	1	2	3	4
	F	S	2	1	3	4	2	1	3	4
4	F	S	3	1	2	4	2	1	3	4
	M	S	2	1	3	4	1	3	2	4
	M	J	2	1	3	4	1	3	2	4
5	F	S	4	3	1	2	2	1	3	4
	F	J	4	3	1	2	2	1	3	4
6	M	S	1	2	3	4	2	1	3	4
	F	J	1	4	2	3	1	3	2	4
7	F	S	1	4	2	3	2	1	3	4
	F	J	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
8	M	S	1	2	3	4	1	3	2	4
	F	J	2	1	3	4	1	3	2	4
9	F	S	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2
	F	J	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2
10	F	S	2	3	1	4	1	NA	2	NA
11	F	S	1	2	4	3	1	2	3	4
	M	J	1	2	4	3	1	2	3	4
12	F	S	1	2	3	4	2	1	3	4
	M	J	3	1	4	2	1	3	4	2

M (Male), F (Female), S (Senior), J (Junior)

Based on the interview data, all teachers agreed that reading was the most important skill to be taught because the national examination examined only the two skills of reading and writing. It is in line with the Government Regulation No. 19/2005 stating that language education should develop language competence with special emphasis on reading and writing according to the literacy level set for every level of education. However, the survey data showed differently. Forty four per cent of English teachers point out that listening was the most important skill to be taught, followed by reading (32 %), speaking (24 %) and there was little agreement about writing (see Table 7.5). Regarding the importance of micro skills, many teachers (54 %) remarked that vocabulary was the most important language feature, followed by grammar (38 %) and pronunciation (8 %) and no agreement on structure of text.

Classroom observation indicates almost all teachers taught reading texts with the special emphasis on vocabulary items; some teachers discussed vocabulary items and the structure of the texts (CS 1, CS 2, CS 4, CS 5, CS 9, CS 10 and CS 11); and some explained the grammatical features of the texts (CS 2, CS 3, CS 4 and CS 8). It seemed to indicate that vocabulary items were the most important language feature and this seemed to lead to teachers' tendency to 'translate' directly any new vocabulary items in the textbook and in teachers' classroom language. Thus, bringing a dictionary (English-Indonesian) was a must for all students, whether from home or the school library. Regarding teaching grammar, many teachers were in doubt whether or not they needed to teach this micro skill since what they heard concerning KTSP curriculum was not to teach grammar in class (CS 5, CS 9 and CS 11). In informal discussions after the interview, many teachers across the five districts asked the researcher whether grammar should be taught or not. The teachers 'overheard' the rumour saying in the implementation of KTSP, they should not be grammar focussed.

In conclusion, the teachers across the districts in the Yogyakarta province were confused regarding the macro and micro skills to be prioritized. The ambiguity regarding the target of macro and micro skills occurred also in some junior high school students in West Java. Intansari (2013), for example, concluded teachers emphasized more on reading and speaking skills in combination with vocabulary items and grammar as language aspects.

For reading, the teachers tried to give various texts to increase students' comprehension of vocabulary items for the national examination. Most teachers tended to translate the vocabulary items or sentences into Bahasa Indonesia directly. The thinking was that if students knew more vocabulary items that would be helpful for them to do the national examination (a senior teacher in CS 8). Another was the structure of the texts on the basis that items in the national examination also examined structure as well as grammar; in other words, teachers tried to drill students by giving various texts with the emphasis on vocabulary items, the structure and a short explanation

on grammatical features of the texts and finalised by their answering of the students' comprehension questions from the textbook.

Such different points regarding the English language skills as well as the important features of KTSP curriculum among teachers might be due to their lack of understanding of the English language teaching paradigm. This perhaps happened because of the lack of in-service training provided by districts or might be from teachers themselves such as ignorance of how to improve their teaching and learning and the demands of their workload to achieve the required 24 teaching hours. In-service training conducted by districts rarely happened even though some English teachers were supported to participate in them by the school principals. However, when it happened, the English teachers claimed that the topics were general and it was for all subject teachers, not specifically about the pedagogical and linguistic aspects of English language education.

Teachers had inadequate knowledge of both pedagogical and professional competences that impacted upon the selection of teaching materials. They felt unsure what and how to teach English. The notion of communicative competence in the four skills seemed difficult to implement in class. Their linguistic competence was also inadequate. What they learned was classroom materials to be used in class. To achieve the communicative competence in language teaching, scholars have maintained that its success depends on teachers.

### **7.3 Teachers' Views on Competency-based Curriculum (CBC) and School-based Curriculum (KTSP)**

The 2004 competency-based curriculum which changed in 2006 to the KTSP (school-based curriculum) with the notion of communicative competence was understood differently on the ground. English teachers articulated their views in different ways. Based on the interviews and classroom observation, it seemed that some English teachers found it difficult to understand the KTSP curriculum, particularly in implementing it in class. Basically, most of them remarked that CBC was general and KTSP was specific because KTSP took into consideration school and student characteristics. They were able to define literally what CBC and KTSP implied, but when asked to put them into their teaching practice in class, they found it difficult to 'translate' what the basic competence is in terms of teaching aims or indicators.

One of the pre-service and in-service trainers from a Yogyakarta state university stated that the terminology used in the KTSP document was not 'teacher friendly', so that it was difficult for teachers to internalize the aim of teaching and the indicators (personal interview, 2011). She further

contended, “Teachers teach with ‘feeling’ and had an inadequate knowledge of the teaching method and the English language”. What they did was they copied the syllabus and lesson plans given by the central government through the district panel of English subject teachers. The following case study material highlights teachers’ opinions regarding their understanding of CBC and the KTSP curriculum.

**CS 1:** The junior teacher said, “There is a problem in implementing the curriculum for sure, like the ambiguity between CBC and KTSP. We had just developed CBC, but then KTSP appears, eventually teachers just follow their school”. The two teachers said, “The competency-based curriculum focuses on students’ competence, that is, the four skills. The school-based curriculum is not significantly different and there is contextual teaching and learning which deals with students’ daily life according to their level of schooling. KTSP is more complete by adding character building embedded in the teaching and learning such as politeness and moral values”. The senior teacher remarked, “In my opinion many teachers do not know what to do in implementing CBC, this happens because the in-service training involved so many teachers, and they just listen to the presenter (the district supervisors) who talked in general terms about CBC”.

However, when the researcher asked how they developed teaching materials, they responded, “We teach grammar, vocabulary items, phrases and the structure of the text though we sometimes find difficulties in time management because there are too many things to cover in the syllabus”. The classroom observation (done once for each teacher) showed that the two teachers taught the reading materials and emphasized the meaning of some words and the structure of the texts. They did not write down specific indicators regarding the text in their lesson plans. They just simply wrote, for example, students can answer the questions; in fact, students were too busy checking the meaning of the words in their dictionary to answer the questions. So, the target of reading text, on the ground, was aimed at answering reading comprehension questions; there was no training in reading strategies, for example skimming and scanning.

**CS 2:** One junior English teacher with 24 years’ experience in junior and senior high schools had graduated in English language education in 2008 though he had been teaching since 1987. Currently he taught at two schools and was confused when asked about the curriculum (syllabus). He said, “Competency-based curriculum and school-based curriculum now is confusing, it’s difficult to understand for both teachers and students, including myself”. Further evidence of his insufficient understanding about curriculum issues was based on observation of his teaching. When the researcher came into his classroom, he explained to the students about the simple English present tense in Bahasa Indonesia. His orientation in teaching focused on sentence form. Another senior female teacher had sufficient knowledge regarding the CBC and KTSP curricula though

classroom observation revealed that this teacher taught narrative text by first explaining the new words, then listening to the text, discussing the structure of the text and eventually asking the students to respond to comprehension questions. There was no explanation about the grammar of the narrative text. It might have happened due to the researcher's time availability to observe the whole lesson planning. However, there was no section/time to explain the grammar in the lesson plan.

**CS 3:** The two teachers interviewed of the four understood the CBC and KTSP. They gained this from the in-service training conducted by its foundation (Catholic) and sometimes from workshops given by text-book publishers. The senior teacher contended that the 2006 curriculum was more learner oriented with the teacher as facilitator; however, their understanding was not implemented in the classroom. This could be seen from what they had already planned and what they taught in class. She first explained in Bahasa Indonesia the difference between verb and noun, including the characteristics of nouns, by reading from the teacher's own notes shown on the screen and then talked about greeting cards. She eventually asked students to do a task from their textbook. Next was listening to the recording and she sometimes interrupted the recording by explaining something else, such as 'this' and 'that'. About fifteen minutes before she finished, the teacher asked one of the students to come forward and present their homework about story telling though her friends had talked one to another in Bahasa Indonesia and Javanese. It seemed to signify that this teacher had 'unclear' teaching aims, some of which were unrelated to each other.

**CS 4:** The senior teacher seemed not to have difficulties in implementing the English language syllabus nor the techniques. This might have been because she was an English teachers' coordinator in the district and actively participated in any seminar or workshop dealing with English language teaching. However, the situation was different regarding the junior teacher teaching in this pilot school of international standard. His comprehension of both curricula was inadequate. His understanding was genre-based teaching for junior high school students to prepare them to pass the national exam. When the researcher joined the class in the afternoon, the class was very noisy speaking in Bahasa Indonesia and Javanese though he previously said in the interview that in the classroom practice of this pilot school of international class, English was used as the classroom instruction. Another senior male teacher changed the aim of teaching in class from recount text to how to send an email. Students kept busy with their laptops rather than listening to the teacher. Some students used a headset to listen to their laptops. When students found problems in their laptop, some asked the teacher in Bahasa Indonesia and some spoke in Javanese to the teacher or their friends in this 'international' class.



**CS 5:** The five English language teachers in this rural district had a very poor in-service training program. The senior teacher clearly said in English, “In 1997 up to 2000, we had weekly meetings in the district, after that because there was no funds from the government, it stopped. MGMP has workshop when there is ‘something new’ such as the change from CBC to KTSP”. The junior teacher added, “The last workshop I had was in 2006 after the earthquake concerning the KTSP curriculum in general (for all subjects) held by the province or LPMP.”

Regarding the KTSP curriculum, the teachers who opted to be interviewed together said, “The KTSP curriculum is good to implement because it accords with students’ characteristics and it shapes the character building of the students”. They added, “We are just confused because the 2004 curriculum or competency-based curriculum had just been implemented, but then it was changed to the 2006 curriculum, so we have no idea about the competency-based curriculum (CBC). We feel good with the school-based curriculum (KTSP). Our difficulty is to get the texts because we need more texts to be examples for practice and for assessment”. This implied that both teachers had lack of knowledge about the aims of teaching English. The teachers believed that teaching grammar should be avoided because there would be no time for it. Their understanding of teaching English was for reading comprehension as well as new lexical items and the generic structure of a text. It seemed these teachers who had been teaching for more than a decade still found difficulty to understand the aim of teaching English. It seems to have been caused by their lacklustre interest in participating in in-service training at the district and provincial levels. They clarified that their understanding of the English teaching paradigm was gained from in-service training for their certification, and it was only done for the sake of gaining a double salary.

**CS 6:** When the question was asked about the competency-based curriculum (CBC), the junior teacher said, “The curriculum is good because it depends on the school conditions now such as writing a greeting card, notice, advertisement and so on. The students are asked to write simple sentences; while our previous curriculum is simple”. This seemed to indicate that the teacher had an inadequate knowledge of English language teaching by saying that the aim of teaching in the KTSP curriculum was to write ‘simple sentences’. She added that CBC ‘accorded with the era’. When the researcher asked what was meant, she could not answer. Regarding the KTSP curriculum, she stated, “I have no idea about that. My focus is still learning what and how to teach English. My problem is my English competence as well”, implying her self-doubt about her English language competence as well as how to teach English appropriately. The senior teacher who had proudly gained teacher certification noted, “*Hadrah* and Islamic culture can be developed here, not English”. He further said that he did not know any kind of curriculum, syllabus or lesson plan. When the researcher tried to question him about what was meant by competency standard, basic competence, and indicators, he was able to identify them but unable to give examples to

support his explanation. He simply said, “I don’t understand completely about those issues; what I know about teaching is doing what I can do through reflecting, such as what it is supposed to be at the end of my teaching. Anyway, the material is what I feel comfortable with and I enjoy teaching speaking. I want the students to speak fluently in English”. On the basis of evidence, these two teachers did not completely understand the aims of teaching English to junior high school students.

**CS 7:** Regarding curriculum, the female senior teacher had inadequate knowledge about the competency-based curriculum. She said, “I don’t understand about competency-based curriculum. What I know is the KTSP curriculum which depends on students’ characteristics and school conditions”. Furthermore, she remarked that she had ‘a copy paste’ version of the syllabus and lesson plan from the district teacher panel. She did not ‘adjust’ them to the school or student context. Whether she was teaching in either government or private schools, all the documents, syllabus and lesson plans were similar. She further added that the difference was in the ‘technique’, but she could not explain what it meant; the junior teacher said, “The competency-based curriculum means students are active and the teacher is facilitator and this curriculum is from the Ministry of National Education; while the KTSP curriculum has the same meaning in which students are active, and this curriculum is developed by the school. The development itself is about the teaching materials and teaching strategy, such as three phase techniques”.

**CS 8:** The senior teacher contended that the curriculum implemented in this Islamic boarding school was a combination of the Islamic education framework and the government curriculum guidelines. He said,

“The education system here follows the teaching methods implemented in Gontor\*. The methodology for English is based on Gontor that lets teachers to be more autonomous in teaching.”

According to him, the teaching of English is based on the “Gontor’ system in which teachers were free to choose any teaching methods. When asked about the similarity between CBC and KTSP, his response was to teach grammatical features and vocabulary. He further noted, “CBC is like a doctrine from Jakarta, the topic is, for example, about SEA Games whilst KTSP for schools in Yogyakarta is about ‘sekaten’. It depends on the culture of each region. So the difference is on the text type which is more about the characteristics of each region”. The junior teacher said very directly, speaking in English,

*\*Gontor is a boarding school established on 10 April 1926 in Ponorogo, East Java by three brothers, KH Ahmad Sahal, KH Zainuddin Fananie and the most influential was KH Imam Zarkasy who had been appointed as Chairman of the MP3A (Religious Education Council) in the late 1950s. Gontor now has 17 branches and 13 campuses from primary to university across Indonesia.*

“I don’t know about CBC and KTSP. Maybe KTSP we have to make a planning for our studying and teaching so we have to use KTSP so we can manage the time and we can know until our students can reach for our lesson. The aim is the students be able to speak English well and understand the native speaker. I don’t know exactly.”

She further said verbatim in English:

“I am confused first how to teach in a formal school, I ask my senior, to me, teaching English is to improve students’ English ability and the way I teach is like how my teachers in senior high school, some years ago, teach me English. I don’t know any methods or strategies of teaching English.”

It seemed to indicate that both teachers had insufficient understanding about English language teaching, particularly regarding the curriculum, syllabus and lesson planning. This might happen because of their limited educational background and lack of participation in in-service training even though the senior teacher claimed that he had ‘previously’ always participated in in-service training sessions conducted by MONE, not MORA.

**CS 9:** The two female teachers were confused when asked about the curriculum paradigm. They had inadequate overall knowledge concerning the current curriculum. They said,

“The 2004 competency based curriculum is the teacher as the learning resource; while, in the KTSP curriculum, the students are active in finding learning resources by reading the textbook or downloading from the internet while teachers are as ‘facilitators’. The similarity of the two curricula is they talk about daily activity and accord to the students’ environment.”

Further responses given by these female teachers were that students were demotivated to learn English. When, for example, teachers spoke in English in class, students directly ‘protested’ and asked them to speak in Bahasa Indonesia or Javanese.

**CS 10:** The only English teacher in this rural area did not understand what CBC meant. She noted that the CBC was good but she had not understood it, then it had been already changed to KTSP. When asked about the KTSP curriculum, she contended that the school itself found difficulty to improve it. She remarked proudly that she was the only accredited teacher in the school and it was difficult for her to manage her time, develop her teaching professionalism as well as complete her administrative tasks. The teacher said, “I often discuss the syllabus and other things with my friend, an English teacher in a government school. I copy the teaching material from her and change a little bit in the documents.”

The teacher’s acknowledgement indicated that the syllabus and lesson plan were ‘made’ by another teacher. This might be because of her lack of understanding of the syllabus. She further acknowledged that she never participated in in-service training held by the district or teachers’ association. But she also claimed that the school had not received any invitation letter to participate in any kind of seminar or workshop. “This is because the school was a private school and too far

from the main road, or the district perhaps does not understand that there is a school here”, the teacher noted wryly.

**CS 11:** The senior female teacher wearing a hijab had started teaching in the school in 2003. She had gained her bachelor’s degree from a private university majoring in English language education in 1997. Concerning the curriculum, she said,

“I’m completely confused about the term, competence. What I understand and do is the teaching material accords to students’ life skills, then I teach it, no reference or special books for me concerning the teaching material, but I ask students to have books with them. I emphasize students’ reading comprehension. On the other hand, I agree with the school based curriculum because the minimum grade is according to the students’ competence in that school though it is very difficult to achieve national standard stipulated by the government, that is, 7.5 for English. Students here are mostly from low income families and students’ motivation is not really good, particularly in learning English.”

She further stated that what she taught was based on the syllabus devised by the district panel subject teachers. She sometimes added more indicators to her lesson plans that she made in cooperation with other English teachers in that school. Another teacher was a fresh graduate having insufficient knowledge about English language teaching including communicative competence, curriculum, syllabus and lesson plans. He said that he always asked his senior teachers and made lesson plans together with them. In fact, he basically felt unsure what and how to teach. “What I need to do first is to motivate the students to learn English in a fun way”.

**CS 12:** A recent graduate of an English language department, he had taught since 2010 in this school and noted that CBC was a curriculum in which students were active in learning and the teacher was a facilitator; whereas KTSP meant the school developed the curriculum with guidance from the central government that accorded with the school’s characteristics. When the researcher asked what it meant, he could not explain. The senior teacher described how the competency-based curriculum was ‘learning’ while the school-based curriculum was ‘teacher as a facilitator’. Her answers indicated that she had an inadequate knowledge of the two curricula, and she said that the aim of teaching English to junior high school students was to introduce the English language but she could not clarify what and how to introduce it. She acknowledged that she just ‘understood’ the English language paradigm from teacher certification training that she had just finished and she was sent to that training by another school (managed by MORA), not CS 12 though her status was a full time teacher since 2005. “I am asking my friends that I reckon are cleverer. This school was never invited to any training by the district or teachers’ association”, she added.

The teachers in the twelve case studies had a mostly inadequate knowledge regarding the 2006 curriculum which targets communicative competence. Most teachers understood the 2004

curriculum literally, merely the word ‘competence’; they had an inadequate capacity in implementing ‘competence’ in the class. They even did not understand the term ‘indicators’ that were written down in the syllabus provided by *BSNP*. Data also implied that teachers depended for their teaching materials on the textbook rather than the basic competence that students need to achieve as stipulated by the government. This might be because of insufficient understanding of the teachers of the curriculum and accordingly lack of teachers’ motivation in developing their competence as well as lack of in-service training provided by the districts. Few teachers had sufficient understanding regarding the competency-based curriculum (CBC). Intansari (2013) noted that the 2004 curriculum was unrealistic in terms of both contents and expectations. Her finding shows that the teachers in 15 junior high schools in a regency in West Java agreed that the curriculum was difficult to understand and it had no relevance to classroom conditions in the contexts whose students were many in a class. Also, Kasihani (2005) found that of 243 teachers attending the national in-service training in 2005, 47.7 per cent implemented the CBC while 127 teachers or 52.3 per cent planned to implement CBC in 2005. Problems found in the implementation of the CBC varied (Kasihani, 2005, p. 21). Most teachers (78.6 %) had difficulty to implement the CBC, such as,

- (1) developing syllabus design, annual and semester programmers, and lesson plans (18.9 %),
- (2) developing and administering assessment (16.3 %),
- (3) understanding and applying the two cycles and the four steps of teaching (7.9 %)
- (4) other things (material, student motivation, media, etc) (4.5 %).
- (5) more than half the respondents (52.4 %) admitted that they had all the above problems.

The KTSP curriculum was interpreted in different ways. Interestingly, most teachers emphasized the notion of character building and moral values in teaching English in the 2006 KTSP curriculum. This seemed to indicate that the English language teaching paradigm that had been changed since 2004, was poorly understood. Most teachers on the ground implemented the KTSP curriculum, but within an insufficient understanding and were unsure whether it accorded with the process and content standards stipulated by the government. They proudly said that they had written into the lesson plans the notions regarding character building and moral values though they believe them ‘difficult’ to measure for learning achievement. Most simply noted that they ‘had to’ clearly state these two elements as they were obligated by the district education office through the district supervisors and principals in 2010 for teachers as the development of the 2006 curriculum (KTSP).

#### **7.4 Student Assessment**

Assessment is the ongoing process of gathering, analysing and reflecting on evidence to make informed and consistent judgements to improve future student learning (Department of Education, Victoria). In Indonesia, MONE Regulation No. 20/2007 describes assessment as one of the national

education standards related to the mechanism, procedure, and instrument to assess students' learning which was done by teachers, schools and government. Teachers conducted biweekly or monthly tests while schools had their mid-term and final semester test. The government had the national examination in Year Nine for the core subjects.

To gain communicative competence, the texts to be examined can be varied, spoken (short functional texts, transactional and interpersonal dialogues and monologues in the target genres) and written (short functional texts and essays in the target genres).

Generally, in the twelve case studies, most teachers assessed students' capacity by testing their reading skills as the national examination had the same kinds of test. To make the tests, particularly for the mid-term and final semester tests, principals' forum (*Musyawarah Kerja Kepala Sekolah – MKKS*) asked 'some teachers' in the panel subject teachers to create tests. The tests were then 'bought' by schools. The principal or vice principal of CS 2, CS 4, CS 5, CS 6, CS 7, and CS 12 noted that the tests were to measure students' competence among schools in the district even though some principals (CS 2 and CS 9) did not always buy it for the mid-semester test. Almost all schools provided such tests for the final semester. The Catholic school (CS 3) conducted final tests which were provided by its foundation. They were to measure and compare students' capacity among schools under its management. Two Islamic-based schools (CS 2 and CS 9) were provided the tests from the *Badan Kerjasama Sekolah* (School Bureau). It seemed to indicate that government and private schools had their forum to measure students' competence among schools in the district or their foundation.

An incident happened when the researcher interviewed the junior teacher in CS 4. At that time, the two senior female teachers of CS 4 (one was the coordinator of the district panel subject teacher) had met to discuss the content of the final test together with a female senior teacher from a private Catholic school. The coordinator said, "We are asked by the district to write a test for junior high schools in this district; some teachers are invited and it often happens in this school". They discussed informally; each had their own laptop. Even during the interview with the junior teacher, the senior teachers kept interrupting the researcher.

To have weekly or monthly tests, most teachers copied tests from other textbooks and copied the questions from the national examination. Teachers in two case studies (CS 8 and CS 12) clearly said that they took the tests from the 'test collection book' or *Bank Soal* published by various local Indonesian publishers. It indicated that most teachers seemed not to consider basic competence and indicators they had already taught and written in their lesson plan. This might be due to teachers'

incompetence in creating the tests and their aim seemed to be to ‘drill’ students with tests which were mostly in the form of multiple choice.

A national curriculum designer noted, “We are teaching language, the biggest problem is teachers’ proficiency, when they are not capable of using English as the classroom language and it has direct impacts to scaffolding talk and when they write a test, their English is not good, their ability to write test items is low, and those teachers are invited to the test centre (*pusat penilaian*), what about ordinary teachers? They just take from written resources, so I rewrite the texts. The texts and the test items are mostly wrong. They need a lot of ‘help’”. This indicated that almost all teachers had an inadequate knowledge to improve their own assessment processes.

## **7.5 English Language Culture**

Culture, as McKay (2003) has asserted, plays an important role in English language teaching in terms of (1) culture knowledge and (2) pragmatic standard of the target language. She further suggested that those issues could be embedded in the choice of teaching materials and topics discussed for students. Unfortunately, in the twelve case studies, the teachers seemed to pay minimal attention to the cultural content embedded in the teaching materials; when the teachers did so, they seemed to teach culture in the form of text types (recount, narrative, transactional conversation). As Kramsch (1993) argues, several researchers think about the relation of language and culture in language teaching such as Halliday (1990) suggesting to anchor culture ‘in the very grammar we use, the very vocabulary we choose, and the very metaphors we live by’. In other words, Halliday (1990) in Kramsch (1993) viewed the traditional dichotomy by calling grammar ‘a theory of human experience’ and text ‘the linguistic form of social interaction’.

The following case study data describes the ‘culture’ taught revealed in the topics based on class observation and lesson plans written by the 25 interviewed teachers. These text types were taken mostly from English language textbooks with target culture topics published in inner circle countries.

In CS 1, a national standard urban school, the senior teacher focused on reading and writing of narrative text. Beginning with listening to a CD, the teenage students were asked to listen to the story entitled *Jack and The Beanstalk* and *Little Red Riding Hood*. The teacher seemed to focus on the structure of the text – orientation, complication and resolution – and eventually the students answered questions about the two narrative texts. The junior teacher taught greeting cards with a power-point presentation focusing on what and how to make greeting cards. One of the slides defined what a greeting card is and she precisely wrote,



Greeting cards (*kartu ucapan*) is a card that we usually give or send to someone who celebrates his/her special day such as birthday, New Year, Eid day, Christmas, wedding, having a new baby, mother's day and congratulation. We write something nice, even it is a pray or wish. All of them will be happy and wealthy.

Structure in greeting cards: (1) greeting, (2) content, (3) salutation and (4) writer's name

The tasks were a completion paragraph about greeting cards and eventually students were asked to write a greeting card.

**CS 2:** The senior teacher in this medium-sized Islamic school explained the narrative texts based on a story from a CD entitled *The Frog Princess*. The tasks, as written in the lesson plan, were completion and comprehension questions. At the beginning of the lesson, she discussed a story from West Sumatra (Minangkabau) entitled *Malin Kundang* even though the two stories did not 'relate' to each other in terms of content and moral value. The other two senior teachers taught conversation emphasized on asking and answering about time such as when is Nigel's birthday? It's in...and the simple present tense. These two teachers discussed sentence, not text type (narrative, descriptive and recount texts).

**CS 3:** The senior teacher taught a *shopping list* in this Catholic international standard school which focused on parts of speech (noun and verb) followed by a sentence completion task while the junior teacher explained a transactional conversation written by herself about *invitation*. This junior teacher, however, asked students to write a dialogue and do role plays in pairs.

**CS 4:** The female senior teacher in this large international school discussed a descriptive text about a person by listening to the recording and the final tasks were drawing a picture based on the recording. The male senior teacher taught how to create and send an email. The junior teacher discussed one of the students' assignments regarding someone's description. The students were also asked to write a descriptive text.

**CS 5:** The senior teacher in this isolated rural school taught procedure and report texts. She gave examples of texts such as television, radio, dolphin etc and asked students to read aloud. The junior teacher explained a short functional text, announcement. She explained the meaning of the words and also the structure of the text. The example of announcement written by the teacher was,

#### Announcement

There will be a holiday camp next month. All scouts must join the camp. The activity will take place at Bangunharjo camping site and last for three days. For further information, please contact Mr. Arkan.

Banyumas, May 12<sup>th</sup>, 2009  
The chief of scout organization



The learning objectives of this reading skill as written in the lesson plan were to understand the explicit and implicit meaning as well as to mention the structure and the purpose of the text.

**CS 6:** The two teachers, a male senior and female junior teachers in this Islamic urban school, taught students ‘unclear learning objectives and texts’. After the greeting, the female teacher checked the roll and asked the students to open their textbook. “Please open your book about advertisement”. She wrote on the whiteboard the meaning of new vocabulary items in Bahasa Indonesia, such as “for sale = *dijual*”. She asked some of the students to read in turns loudly and checked students’ comprehension of the advertisement. The male senior teacher taught vocabulary items and frequently used the expressions in English such as, ‘come on’, ‘any question maybe’, ‘no’, ‘be quiet’, ‘be calm’, ‘bla bla bla’ repetitively. What the expressions taught was not well planned and written in a lesson plan. Based on class observation, it indicated they focused on teaching vocabulary items, word recognition and sentence-based level.

**CS 7:** After the greeting, the senior teacher wrote a dialogue on the blackboard and asked students to understand it. While the teacher was writing, the students copied on their books. The teacher stopped writing and asked students not to write and to repeat the dialogue after her. She read line by line and the students repeated, and she sometimes deliberately pronounced some words several times. She then translated the new lexical items and the sentences as well. She finally asked students to read in pairs and she directly corrected students’ pronunciation and asked them to write in their books. She eventually wrote a conclusion about expressions of ‘command’ and ‘offering for help’ as well as the response and gave students particular situations as the task, written on the blackboard. She explained what the situation meant and asked students to perform one of the dialogues as a role play.

Data indicated that the teacher focused on expressions as well as vocabulary items. Additionally, the junior teacher asked students to write vocabulary items into Indonesian as written precisely on the blackboard such as coffee=*kopi*, cup=*cangkir*, listening=*mendengarkan*, cookies=*kue kering*, eat=*makan*, cinema=*bioskop*, water=*air*, mostly items that the students should have already known from previous years. The teacher checked students’ writing. The next activity was to match sentences from the textbook about offering and accepting/refusing expressions.

**CS 8:** The senior teacher of this small boarding school dictated sentence by sentence; there were ten sentences altogether and they were unrelated to each other. Sometimes the students interrupted the teacher due to unclear pronunciation or new vocabulary items. This teacher made a lot of mispronounced words in his dictation, such as six /sɪk/, were /wɛ:/, folktale /fɒktɪl/, promise /prɒːmaɪs/. He then wrote the answers on the whiteboard and translated them one by one. The

students eventually corrected the sentences and counted how many mistakes they had made. This indicated the teaching focus was about vocabulary items. The junior teacher explained about proper nouns by reading her grammar book on her seat. She sometimes wrote examples of proper nouns on the whiteboard while sitting on her seat. She kept explaining about proper nouns and common nouns and eventually asked students to do the task from their grammar textbook – read, write and judge whether the words were proper or common nouns.

**CS 9:** The senior teacher of this medium sized government school greeted the students in English saying, "Good morning students, how are you?". The students responded, "I am fine, thank you, and you?". The teacher then explained in Bahasa Indonesia about the teaching material for that day. "We talk about reading aloud of the text that we have discussed such as announcement and shopping list. Now I want you to repeat after me the words on the whiteboard". The teacher wrote some vocabulary items from her shopping list. Some written words precisely written on the whiteboard were:

1 kg of eggs, ½ kg of flour, five sachet of shampoo, chillies ¼ kg, potatoes 1 kg

When the teacher finished writing, she said, "Well, students, now you repeat after me". The teacher read the words - if the students made mistakes in pronunciation, she asked them to again repeat it. She sometimes asked students at random to read loudly. At last, she asked students to copy the words onto their books. This episode signified that she taught a short functional text, however, she did not explain the grammar, such as the noun phrase. The teacher focused more on word pronunciation rather than how to understand the noun phrase. The junior teacher asked one of the students to read aloud the paragraph. Having finished reading, the teacher said, "Well, students, you find the mistakes? Yes, many....such as island /ɪslænd/, general /dʒen(ə)r(ə)l/, arrival /ə'raɪvəl/ and diving /diːvɪŋ/. Well, repeat after me". The teacher read the text, but some students did not pay attention at all and they did not repeat the teacher's reading. In fact, the teacher herself had mispronounced words such as 'saw' /səʊ/, and 'easy' /'eɪsi/. She read very slowly and carefully. She then discussed the meaning of each vocabulary item in the paragraph in Bahasa Indonesia. At this stage, she mostly spoke in Bahasa Indonesia. Finally, she asked students to translate the text and retell it in Bahasa Indonesia followed by answering the three comprehension questions orally. "Well students, what is the purpose of the text? What is a recount text? What is the generic structure?" asked the teacher. In fact, the teacher herself answered all questions.

**CS 10:** The lone senior teacher greeted the class in English. The teacher then spoke in English, "..... now we talk about recount text. What is the purpose of the text?". She again explained the recount text at a glance such as the definition and the purpose of recount texts. She then loudly read

the paragraph. After having finished reading, she asked the students the more difficult words. The students kept silent, no response at all. The teacher read the text for the second time, and asked students to read it aloud in turn, one student per one paragraph. As the first task, the teacher asked the students to find past tense verbs and change them into the present tense, such as what she wrote on the blackboard, felt – feel = *merasa*. While the students tried to find the verbs, the teacher kept talking explaining past tense verbs and passive voice. This episode indicated that the students were confused about the difference between past tense verbs and passive voice, particularly the third person form of the verbs. This might have happened because of the linguistic difference between English, Bahasa Indonesia as well as Javanese (the language frequently used by students). To check the students' comprehension, the teacher wrote questions on the blackboard.

**CS 11:** After greeting and checking the homework, the senior teacher teacher in this national standard school continued the lesson by writing an announcement on the whiteboard precisely as follows:

Monday, April 21 is Kartini Day. To celebrate it, each class must present a couple of boy and girl. They have to wear and perform traditional customs. Also there will be cooking competition. For more information, please confirm your class teacher.

She then discussed the meaning of the underlined words and together with the students translated into Bahasa Indonesia the whole text. After translating, she asked the students to make an announcement. She prompted in Bahasa Indonesia, “*Kepada anggota OSIS, besok ada rapat jam 9*”. The teacher asked one of the students to translate it into English in a spoken utterance. The teacher then wrote on the whiteboard:

To all OSIS member. There will be a meeting at 09.00 a.m tomorrow. Please don't be late.  
Chairman

This teacher again wrote the third example on the whiteboard precisely as follows:

To Yanuar  
Yan, are you free this afternoon? If you were, *would* you come with me to the mall. We could do window shopping. How does the sound?  
Anis

For the third time, the teacher translated word by word together with the students. She then said in Bahasa Indonesia, “*Jadi...poin-poin apa yang terdapat dalam invitation* (what should be included in an invitation?)”. The students kept silent; she again wrote on the whiteboard:

Points included in an invitation, announcement and short message:

- (1) The title
- (2) Address
- (3) Day, date, place/time
- (4) Who to contact

She eventually asked the students to make a short message, and she wrote:

Make short message to your friend. Tell her (Anis) that you cannot go with her because you join cooking competition at school.

The teacher started teaching, saying, “*Assalamualaikum warahmatullahi wabarakatuh...*”, followed by a greeting in English and he said, “Who is absent today? Nobody? *Alhamdulillah...* well students, today we will study about map...”. The teacher then stuck two papers of A3 size on the whiteboard, but they could not be seen clearly. He explained the map (class map) about the students’ seats. “Students, do you know the function of this map? This is to help you how to tell your seats. To get more understanding, I give the explanation of the map. Have you heard the words in front of, beside, behind...well, let’s match the sentence and the map”. This observation indicated that the teacher always spoke in Bahasa Indonesia and sometimes in Javanese. The emphasis of his teaching were the vocabulary items, that is, prepositions of place. He did not explain the grammar or the structure of a descriptive text.

**CS 12:** After the greetings, the senior teacher of this private rural school asked students to listen to one of the students reading the text, and sometimes the teacher corrected the students’ pronunciation mistakes. After reading one paragraph, the teacher said in English, “Have you write number one up to number 10? Now you write”. The teacher then wrote the ten comprehension questions on the whiteboard. The same situation also happened to the junior English teacher who had just finished his bachelor degree. He wrote vocabulary items on the whiteboard that just came into his head and asked the students to find the meaning of the words. The students copied the words on their books and the teacher sat down on his seat at the front. After a couple of minutes, the teacher asked the students voluntarily to write the meaning of the words on the whiteboard. They then discussed the meaning together. After that the teacher wrote precisely on the whiteboard:

Samsudin	Rofi	Indri	Rosyid
163 cm	145 cm	169 cm	163 cm

The teacher explained in Bahasa Indonesia the teaching material. He said, “... well, students, now we study about the degree of comparison”. He wrote the examples and directly asked the students to copy them onto their books. About ten minutes later, the teacher asked the students to translate the dictated sentences about comparison on their books.

Based on the class observation, data showed that some teachers did not have their lesson plan for the teaching material that day and some brought a lesson plan but only as an example because the researcher had asked for them. The lesson plan itself was supposed to show what skills and ‘culture’ were taught in class; in fact, of the twelve case studies, the teachers mostly focused more

on reading skill (CS 1, CS 2, CS 3, CS 4, CS 5, CS 10 and CS 11) with the emphasis of teaching vocabulary items and the text structure. Some teachers even believed that they did not need to teach grammar (CS 1, CS 5, CS 6, CS 7, CS 9, CS 10, and CS 11).

Such a situation might be due to the aim of teaching English, which was to succeed in the national examination. The teachers believed reading skills and grammatical features to be the emphasis of the national examination. Regarding culture in the form of knowledge and pragmatic standard that should be taught in class (McKay, 2003), most teachers seemed to 'ignore' it. As Kramsch (1993, p. 1) and Shahed (2013, p. 98) have asserted, the teaching of English at the primary and secondary levels in Bangladesh is the conviction that language is merely memorizing grammatical features and some aspects of the embedded social context. Such a situation has also happened in Asian countries in which English as a foreign language and the grammar translation method were implemented (Chhuon, 1998; Yong and Campbell (1995, p. 378; LoCastro, 1996, p. 49; Kam, 2002; Lie, 2007; Supriadi, 2000; Dardjowidjojo, 2000).

Of the twelve case studies, some teachers (CS 1, CS 2, CS 3, CS 4, CS 5, CS 10 and CS 11) taught the whole text as suggested by the government such as narrative, recount, transactional conversation, and short functional texts. Schools in urban CS 1 taught a narrative text with target culture content designed for young learners, that is, *Jack and The Beanstalk* and *Little Red Riding Hood*; while the junior teacher taught a short functional text that not to be accustomed to making such cards. As further noteworthy, the students rarely created greeting cards even in religious celebrations (Ied Mubarak and Christmas). The examples of greeting cards discussed by the teacher – wedding, having a new baby, mother's day, congratulations on graduation – also did not match with the characteristics of teenage students in junior high school. So, in CS 1, the teachers discussed the target culture materials. It indicated the teachers could not create the teaching materials with source culture materials. The tasks that the students did at that time were to answer comprehension questions from the greeting cards that seemed to be written by the teacher.

As occurred in CS 1, the senior teacher taught a narrative text with target culture content designed for young learners, that is, *The Frog Princess*. The text is as follows:

### **The Frog Princess**

Long ago in a land far away, a prince lived with his mother, the queen, and his father, the king. The prince was a very happy little boy. He played with the other boys and girls. He went to school with them, too. When the prince was sixteen, he said to the queen and the king, "Can I get married?" "Yes," said the queen, "You can get married when you meet the right girl." "Mother," said the prince, "I met the right girl today. Her name is Sally." "Oh, no!" said the king, "You can't marry Sally. Sally is not a princess. You must marry a princess" "But," said the prince, "Where are all the princesses? There are no princesses in our land." "No," said the queen; "a long time ago before you were born, a wizard turned all of the little princesses into frogs. Now there are no princesses." The

prince said, "But how can I change the frogs back into princesses?" "You must kiss the frogs," said the king, "That is the only way. But remember, although all princesses are frogs not all frogs are princesses." So the prince went into the countryside and found a lot of frogs and kissed them all, but nothing happened. Then at last he found a frog that looked different. This frog was very beautiful and the prince was sure that this frog was a princess. So, he picked up the frog and he kissed it and "Bang!" "Flash!" the frog turned into a beautiful princess. "Oh, princess," said the prince. "Will you marry me?" "Marry you?" said the princess, "Of course not! I can't marry a prince who kisses frogs." And then, she walked away.

Questions:

1. What does the text tell us about?
2. Who are characters in the story?
3. When did the prince want to get married?
4. Is Sally a princess?
5. Can he get married with the princess?

This senior teacher with a master degree acknowledged she tried to find 'interesting' teaching material from the internet. The target culture topic was a fable designed for young learners. The schools in the city (CS 3 and CS 4) taught a text based on international target culture taken from some English textbooks and texts created by the teachers such as about Justin Bieber, an international pop star. In rural areas, most teachers used source culture materials from textbooks and the students' workbook. This was in line with suggestion of Hamied (2012) to teach local culture because this would enable students to explain Indonesian culture to the international community.

In general, almost all the teachers depended on textbooks written by Indonesian writers and students' workbooks published by local publishers. Because they were being observed, some teachers acknowledged that they had already prepared the teaching materials from the internet or other textbooks with target culture topics. As McKay (2003) has suggested,

"Traditionally, many English language textbooks have used target culture topics. Frequently ELT textbooks use such content because textbooks are often published in inner circle countries and because some ELT educators believe such information will be motivating to English language learners. Whereas it is quite possible that such content may be largely irrelevant, uninteresting, or even confusing for students." (McKay, 2003, p. 10)

The second issue regarding culture according to McKay (2003) is pragmatic standards which become more problematic. The standards here refer to what Cohen (1996) assumed as native-like competence. Brown and Levinson (1987) contend three factors affect the use of speech acts: (1) the social distance between speaker and hearer, (2) the relative social power of speaker and hearer, and (3) the degree of imposition of speech act even though these factors vary from culture to culture. Of the twelve case studies, such issues seemed to be 'taken for granted' as dialogues or transactional conversations were discussed by only a few teachers since the target of English language teaching

for junior high schools is reading skill. Teachers created the dialogues themselves and seemed to ignore the pragmatic aspects of the English language.

In CS 3, an international standard school, the teacher checked students' attendance (43 students) by calling their names at the beginning of her teaching. When the teacher checked the students' roll, she sometimes asked the students, "Are you sleep?", "*Toro*, are you sick?." The teacher always translated what she meant even though some students had already responded to the teacher's question. Also, in creating the dialogue, the teacher asked students to say it in English while she spoke in Bahasa Indonesia. There was no dialogue written on the whiteboard as the model (example) and this junior teacher wrote only a conclusion on the whiteboard:

### Invitation

"I plan to invite you to my..."  
 "Can you come to the ..."  
 "Come to..."

"Could you come to ..."  
 "Would you please come to..."  
 "I'd like to invite you to..."

### Accepting an invitation

"OK, I will come"  
 "Yes, I can"  
 "Sure, that would be great"

### Refusing/Declining an invitation

"I'm so sorry, but I must..."  
 "No, I can't"  
 "I'm afraid, I can't come"

In CS 7, the senior teacher wrote the dialogues precisely as follows:

Father : "Susi come here, please"  
 Susi : "What can I do for you dad?"  
 Father : "Can you help me pass a glass of coffee here?"  
 Susi : "Sure, dad, here it is. What else, dad?"  
 Father : "Take me the newspaper too"  
 Susi : "All right"  
 Father : "Thanks girl"  
 Susi : "You're welcome"

After writing down on the blackboard, this junior teacher asked students to do a role play by saying, "Can you help me practice the dialogue?". The students kept silent and the teacher repeated the question and asked one of the students sitting in front to translate. The teacher then wrote some expressions as follows:

### Offering for help

Offer: *menawarkan bantuan*

Expressions:

(1) May I help you?  
 (2) Can I help you?

Sure  
 Yes, of course



- |                                     |                               |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| (3) Do you mind if I help you?      | OK/All right                  |
| (4) What can I do for you?          | No problem/ no at all         |
| (5) Let's me help you: Mari/ijinkan | I'm sorry. I can do by myself |

She eventually wrote two situations on the blackboard precisely as follows:

- (1) You look an old lady bring a heavy basket full with vegetables in the street and you want to help her bring the basket. What should you say to her?
- (2) Anto moves the table by himself. You want to help her to finish his job. What will you say to him.

Thomas (1995) defined pragmatic as meaning in interaction which was dynamic involving the negotiation of meaning between speaker and hearer. Of the two examples (CS 3 and CS 7), the teachers focused the meaning of the expressions literally (word by word) rather than the pragmatic aspects in the expressions. Both teachers and students understood merely the expressions; another meaning of such expressions had never been discussed at all. As well, they tried to teach also the politeness of the English language by teaching students longer expressions that they thought would be polite.

Regarding the speech act in the dialogue, it seemed to be 'awkward'. The utterances seemed to be 'unnatural'. As well, the father had more polite utterances than his daughter. This indicated that the teacher failed to create an authentic dialogue for the teaching materials.

Besides two angles (culture and pragmatic standards) as coined by McKay (2003), Cortazzi and Jin (1996) outlined an important aspect in language classroom, the so-called, culture of learning that might influence the process of teaching and learning. Basically, teachers in Indonesia are regarded as the source of information. Thus, the teaching and learning process mostly took place in class in which teachers dominated the class with their talk while students listened to them, without interruption nor questions. As White (1997), found social studies teaching in Indonesia has emphasized content knowledge and the national examination has been the driving force in the educational system. As a result, the methods used by teachers were lecturing, reading the text and traditional testing. Teachers transferred the knowledge rather than create critical thinking and problem solving exercises for students to learn. Students listened and wrote what teachers explained.

In summary, most teachers in the twelve case studies defined culture written as text type or genre in English language and cultural issues outlined in several textbooks seemed to be more focused on target culture topics including lexical, grammatical and phonological aspects. As Hammond et al. (1992) pointed out, every culture produces text types or genres. English, for example, produces texts called narrative, recount, anecdote, transactional and interpersonal conversations, short notice



etc. (Agustien, 2005). Teachers, in general, seemed to focus their teaching on text types which had been clearly stipulated in the content standard for junior high school graduates.

## **7.6 Teacher Classroom Instruction**

The data regarding the medium of instruction in class were gained from both the teacher questionnaire and class observation. Based on the 25 responses regarding classroom language, 45 per cent of the English teachers said that the language of instruction was in English, while 50 per cent said a mixture of English and Bahasa Indonesia, and five per cent said it was totally in Bahasa Indonesia. Based on interview and questionnaire data, most English teachers agreed that ‘a mixture’ of English and Bahasa Indonesia was used as the medium of instruction in class though one teacher in CS 2 mentioned that Bahasa Indonesia was used in class due to the students’ low competence in English.

Based on the questionnaire given to the students, 69.7 per cent of students liked teachers speaking in English in class, 24 per cent were in doubt and 6.3 per cent responded negatively, whereas 52.1 per cent of students agreed that English teachers spoke in English in the school environment, while 37.5 per cent were not sure and 10.5 per cent stated they did not like teachers speaking in English in school. The data clearly showed that students liked the English teachers to speak in English both inside and outside the classroom.

Regarding teachers’ standards, the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (2010) in the USA states that teachers should have “sufficient command of the target language to communicate on a variety of topics in both formal and informal contexts. They can effectively conduct classes in the target language at all levels of instruction” (page 13). Furthermore, Chambles (2012) contends that teachers’ oral proficiency in the target language is a critical issue that impacts on classroom practices, teacher effectiveness and student learning.

However, the observation data showed a very different reality from the survey data. Most teachers preferred to speak in Bahasa Indonesia. They claimed it was to help students easily understand the taught material. One of the teachers, for example, remarked, “Teachers should make the students understand, but the input is low competence students added to unsupportive facilities. That is why I tend to speak mostly in Bahasa Indonesia”, said a teacher in CS 2. It implied that most teachers felt that when they spoke in English, the students were not able to understand them. In practice, the teachers spoke in English but they directly translated into the low variety of Bahasa Indonesia. The survey data showed that nearly 71 per cent of students wanted their teachers to speak in English inside and outside the classroom. In line with such ideas, Mustafa (2001) remarked that teachers

tend to speak in Bahasa Indonesia in class, except to begin and to end the lesson when they speak in English. In Japan, Mitsuo (2010) found out there were few opportunities for students in class to speak in Japanese or English and student teachers spoke more than necessary.

This is exactly what happened in most classrooms. Based on the class observation, at the beginning of the English class, most teachers greeted students in formulaic English with variations, such as the following:

T: “Assalamualaikum warahmatullahi wabarakatuh....”

Ss: “Walaikum salam warahmatullahi wabarakatuh“.

T: “Good morning students, how are you?”

Ss: “Fine, thank you, and you?”

T: “I am very well, thanks. Do you have homework? Yes? We are going to discuss about homework. Who is absent today? ...

When the teacher explained the teaching material such as when reading texts, they tended to read it, and led students to understanding with synonyms of the word, such as:

“What is the synonym of enormous? You see the enormous giant opposite to the little giant” (CS 1).

Most teachers translated what they meant in Bahasa Indonesia, such as:

“What is it? What is *announcement*? *Apa yang dimaksud dengan announcement*. Do you remember *announcement*? *Masih ingat tentang announcement*? We talk about it maybe...last month *Mungkin bulan lalu*...after this, I want you to understand the content of this announcement, *Setelah ini kamu mengerti isi pengumuman*” (CS 5).

And some spoke totally in low variety Bahasa Indonesia (CS 3),

T: “*Bayangkanlah Dika is a university student, kuliah di Boston, suatu hari, Dika mengendarai Ferrari merah. On the way to his college, ke kampusnya..., lalu sampai dikampus. Dika studi di akademi...setelah dia sampai disana, Dika langsung menuju ke perpustakaan untuk meminjam buku karena ada tugas dari dosennya. Lalu Dika menuju ke rak buku, tiba-tiba ada gadis berlari kearahnya, tanpa melihat dan ‘bam’, mereka bertabrakan. Ternyata gadis itu adalah Dea. Dea minta maaf pada Dika*”.

S (Dea): “I’m sorry”,

T: “*Ya maaf, saya harus bertemu dengan guruku, Eh, Dea, aku lupa, bagaimana kuliahnya? Pasti menyenangkan*”.

Translation (in low variety):

T: “Suppose Dika is a college student of Boston University. One day, Dika drove his red Ferrari. On the way to his college..., arrived at campus. Dika studied in the academy....after he arrived there, Dika directly went to the library to borrow books because there were some tasks from his lecturer. Dika then went to the shelves, there was suddenly a girl came and hit him. He went to the library to do a task given by the lecturer; but somebody without looking at him, hit him. The girl was Dea. Dea asked for her apology”.

S (Dea): “I’m sorry, Dik...”

T: "I'm sorry, I need to see my teacher. Dea I forgot asking about your study. How is it going? It must be exciting".

Generally, most teachers in class spoke totally in the low variety of Bahasa Indonesia, except for a senior female teacher in CS 4 and the junior teacher in CS 8. The following excerpts were spoken by the senior female teacher in CS 4 with 28 years' experience teaching junior high school in engaging students' participation in the class. The English lesson was conducted after the sports subject in the late morning. When the researcher and the teacher came into class, some students kept talking and some were still changing their uniform in another room. She then prepared her laptop and two active speakers,

T: "Alright, class, can we start now?"

Ss: "Yes" in chorus

T: "OK, good morning everyone",

Ss: "Good morning"

T: "How are you?"

Ss: "I'm fine, thank you, and you?" in chorus

T: "I'm fine too. Are you still tired?"

Ss: "Yes" in chorus

T: "Sweating also, ya, and smell hm..."

Ss: "Huh..." in chorus

T: "OK, is everybody in today?"

Ss: "Yes"

T: "OK, who is absent today? How about Jihan? Oh, not Jihan, Rasya? You are here, what happened to you yesterday? What, I beg your pardon, what did you say?, oh, sick. Sorry to hear that...*Baik anak-anak...*yesterday we studied about..."

Ss: "Description"

T: "Description, how to describe someone, OK, alright, I want to review some adjectives or some words to describe face, what are they? You still remember...forget? To describe face, round face, square face, ya... oval. Our nose? Flat and pointed and short...OK, hair? Straight, curly, short...and what? Long or tall? Tall... and eyes, big eyes, round eyes, slanted eyes... OK, right, there are some adjectives short, fat, what is the opposite big...thin...or skinny. Do you know slim? What is the Indonesia word...ya...*langsing*... There are some other adjectives to show age, old, young, and also some characteristics of personality like he is a serious man, humorous or funny...can you mention others, friendly, kind, OK, fine, honest, yes... Can you spell? OK... What? Ya, rude, we studied some characteristics, OK, how many words did you study yesterday? OK, well, today we will do some listening practice, okay. It's not necessary to open your book. I have some papers here, OK, yes, can you help me to distribute this, just pass it around.

The teacher always gave prompts such as gestures and pictures to engage students to find out the vocabulary items. The students responded well and participated actively in this teaching, for example, responding to the teachers' initiatives regarding adjectives. This seemed to indicate that students were able to understand teacher's classroom language in English. This might be because the teacher had already discussed the matter and the school which was in the city had sufficient facilities in learning; most students' socioeconomic background was good and the teacher herself had good competence in teaching.

Accordingly, a junior teacher in an urban area (CS 8) with no formal English background tried always to speak in English because it was a must for students to speak in both Arabic and English.

Her classroom language was mostly in English with ‘inappropriate pronunciation’. However, when she explained the teaching material, she translated English to Bahasa Indonesia. The following excerpts were precisely spoken by the junior teacher with four years’ experience.

- T: “Where is others? Do you bring your book? *Assalamualaikum warahmatullohi wabarakatuh...*”,  
Ss: “*Waaalaikum salam warahmatullohi wabarakatuh*”  
T: “Let’s reading *basmalah* together”  
Ss: “*Bismillahhirrohmannirrahim*”  
T: “Good morning everybody, how is life?”  
Ss: “Everything is under control, how about you?” (in chorus)  
T: “I am very well, thank you. Are you surprised about her? Yes? She wants to follow study here, never mind?”  
Ss: “Never mind”  
T: “OK, OK, see me, see me. OK, I want to ask you about your examination yesterday. How about your examination yesterday? Is it so difficult or so easy? Difficult? Easy? Who is the first ranking of this class? And the second? Who is the third?”  
Ss: “Anggita, Ida and Pangestika”  
T: “Congratulation. And then open your book, please, on page 6. Please open page 6. Do you still remember what the meaning of noun?”  
Ss: “Noun is a word...” (in chorus)  
T: “Not not, Indonesian language. What is the meaning of noun?”  
Ss: “*Kata benda*”

The teacher then read the textbook while sitting.

- T: “*Kata benda*. OK. Noun is a word use as a name of anything, a person, an animal, an object, a place, a situation, a quality, or an idea. And then here noun is divided into six kinds. What the meaning of divide? Noun is divided into six kinds? What the meaning of that? Noun *itu*? Divide *itu apa artinya*? *Kata benda itu dibagi menjadi 6 macam*, a. Proper noun, b. Common noun, c. Material noun, d. Collective noun, e. Abstract noun and f. Possessive noun. All of you have open your book.  
Ss: “Yes”  
T: “A proper noun is a word that stands for a name of a person, country and any particular names which began with capital letter. *Jadi kata benda proper noun itu adalah suatu kata benda yang diawali dengan huruf kapital. Apa sih huruf kapital itu*?  
Ss: “*Huruf besar*”  
T: “*Huruf besar yang menandai nama orang, nama negara, nama tempat, or nama kota*. For example here I wanna say to you, Yogyakarta is the biggest city, for example ya.

Then the teacher wrote the sentence, “Yogyakarta is the biggest city”.

- T: “Yogyakarta *adalah kota yang paling besar*. And then you see here, Yogyakarta, the first word is using capital letter. Yogyakarta is the name of... the name of...person? City? Or country? So Yogyakarta here is the name of proper...proper...what...noun. *Kalau ada kata nama orang, nama tempat, nama kota or nama negara maka huruf itu nantinya dimulai dengan huruf kapital, maka nama itu adalah proper noun*. Do you understand? So who wants to give examples, please for proper noun? OK. America is the biggest country. Anggita...where is the proper noun? America, so not only in the first of the sentence but also you can put in the last of the sentence or in the middle of a sentence. For example here,

The teacher wrote a sentence on the whiteboard, “My lovely city is Jakarta”

- T: “Here Jakarta is not in the first sentence, but also in the last the sentence, so here Jakarta is in the last sentence, proper noun. *Paham ya... Coba sekarang saya tunjuk ya*, Siti...please give me your example about proper noun and put in a sentence, up to you can use the name of person, name of city, or name of country. *Hayo Siti... Kemon...*

The teacher first asked about the top scores of the students' previous English test. She congratulated them and asked those who had gained bad scores to learn much better. She then explained about proper nouns by reading her grammar book from her seat. She sometimes wrote examples of proper nouns on the whiteboard while remained seated. She kept explaining about proper nouns and common nouns and eventually asked students to do the task from their grammar textbook – read, write and judge whether the words were proper or common nouns.

Based on the observation, the teacher tried to use classroom language in English with 'mispronunciation', such as *sik* (six), *kountri* (country), *kemon* (come on). When the teacher asked about the meaning of a word or explained something such as proper nouns, she directly translated into Bahasa Indonesia. She preferred to speak fluently in English though the grammar, choice of words and pronunciation sometimes were inappropriate. It seemed to indicate that she tried to make 'English speaking a habit' for herself and all students even though she sometimes spoke in Bahasa Indonesia with students outside the class. When the researcher asked about the aim of her teaching, she simply said, "It's about noun". She then explained that she taught all classes about grammar. English language skills were taught by different teachers, and Year Nine was specifically taught by a senior teacher focusing on the national examination.

This indicated that both senior and junior English language teachers (full time), had inadequate knowledge regarding English language teaching, particularly regarding the curriculum, syllabus and lesson planning. What she understood was how to make students speak in English. This might happen because of her limited educational background and lack of participation in in-service training.

Added to this, the principal stated clearly that the school had implemented the competency-based curriculum, but then the KTSP curriculum had been implemented for the first time in this school in the academic year 2011/2012. It seemed that the principal and teachers were not sure about both the CBC and KTSP.

Most English teachers of the twelve case studies contended that they spoke in English (45 %), 'mixture' of English and Indonesia (50 %) and 5 per cent in Bahasa Indonesia. Observation data showed that they mostly spoke in mixed English (when reading the texts) and Bahasa Indonesia (translating word by word, particularly the difficult words). A few teachers spoke in Javanese (CS 11 and CS 12). When students were asked about language for classroom instruction, students (69.7 %) agreed teachers spoke in English in class and 52.1 per cent students agreed English in school environment.

Generally, most teachers believe that teachers are more confident speaking in Bahasa Indonesia than in English. The senior teacher in CS 9 remarked, “I cannot speak English in class because the students do not understand me and if they don’t understand, their motivation becomes worse. They often say, ...ma’m...ma’m...what do you want to say? Please speak in Javanese or Bahasa Indonesia, not English”. This episode signified that teachers felt it was more appropriate speaking in Bahasa Indonesia rather than in English. It was assumed it helped students’ understanding of the English teaching material as well.

In contrast, Nation (2003) has argued that where learners have little opportunity of hearing English language expression in and outside the classroom, the use of the second language needs to be maximised in the classroom. In addition, it seemed teachers had insufficient understanding about “language learning and acquisition” as researched by Krashen and Terrell (1983). They distinguish ‘language learning’ from ‘language acquisition’. Language learning refers to conscious or knowing about the language, while language acquisition is subconscious or picking up the language. In the context of Indonesia, most people rarely use English to communicate particularly in schools. Teachers and students spoke in low variety Bahasa Indonesia and Javanese. It implied that students, at any level of education, learned English in the English subject which aimed at gaining sufficiently scores to pass the national examination.

Despite the improving technology through the internet, most teachers, particularly in urban and rural areas, had never accessed information or any teaching material from the internet. This happened due to teachers’ very limited capacity in using information technology or the difficulty of access in schools. As Krashen (1981, p. 41) asserts, classroom may serve as both an ‘intake’ formal and informal linguistic environment; in fact, it was difficult to realize, particularly English as a foreign language and insufficient competence of teachers to use information technology in class.

## **7.7 Summary**

Over two decades, the philosophy of English language teaching showed a significant shift summed up in the term of communicative competence. In fact, such cannot easily be found in Indonesian classrooms. The teachers felt unsure and confused regarding what to teach and how to teach English in accordance with the curriculum or the current English language teaching paradigm even though most teachers (80 %) in the twelve case studies had gained their bachelor degree in English language. Few teachers actively participated in the in-service training conducted by the district and teachers’ association. Their teaching experience ranged between 1 to 36 years, 71 per cent having 18 years teaching experience and 9 per cent teaching for six years or less. As well, forty per cent had been certified as ‘professional teachers’.

Even though most teachers' educational qualifications seemed to be satisfactory, they had inadequate knowledge regarding English language teaching particularly in the implementation in class. They were not sure about the aim of teaching English. The notion of communicative competence has been a documentation rather than implementation. It seemed also to indicate that teachers taught based on textbooks, not their lesson plans.

Teachers felt unsure regarding what skills are to be the focus of teaching; based on the interview data, they remarked that reading and writing are important for the national examination. However, the survey data showed differently. Most teachers said that listening was the most important skill to teach followed by reading, speaking and writing. It was different from the Government Regulation No. 19/2005 saying that language education should develop language competence with special emphasis on reading and writing according to the literacy level set up for every level of education. The aim of teaching English seemed to be due to the national examination rather than communicative competence.

The notion of communicative language teaching had been claimed by many Asian countries, including Indonesia to be implemented in the context of English as a foreign language. A number of research studies on communicative and task-based language teaching classrooms has been conducted in China, Hong Kong, Japan, Malaysia, Indonesia and South Korea. Littlewood (2007), for example, made five criticisms on implementing CLT in East Asia: (1) Classroom management, (2) avoidance of English, (3) minimal demands on language competence, (4) incompatibility with public assessment demands and (5) conflict with educational values and traditions. He further suggested that teachers in East Asia 'have recast elements of the communicative approach to suit other conditions of relevance' (p. 246). Scholars such as Li (1998) suggested to adapt rather than adopt while Samimy and Kobayashi (2004) advised to embrace CLT in such 'a culturally sensitive and appropriate way, yet maintain its own contextual autonomy' (p. 258). Similarly, a study of an English teacher of French and a Korean teacher of English done by Mitchell & Lee (2003) found that both teachers were committed to the implementation of the communicative approach, that is, "Teacher-led interaction, and the mastery of correct language models, took priority over the creative language use and student centering which have been associated with more fluency-oriented or 'progressivist' interpretations of the communicative approach" (p. 56). A similar situation had also happened in Indonesia. District supervisors claimed that most teachers 'adopted' the curriculum stipulated by the government even though some, according to them, had already adapted the curriculum to the characteristics of students and schools.

## CHAPTER 8

### EVALUATION OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CURRICULUM: SCHOOL FACILITIES

Given the differences between schools in terms of location and socio-economic context, the implementation of the KTSP curriculum varied. Schools located in the city, for example, were provided with ‘extraordinary’ facilities compared to schools in urban and especially rural areas. The provision of facilities would then impact upon students’ motivation and achievement. This chapter describes the facilities of the twelve case study schools, including learning resources for students.

#### 8.1 School Facilities

As touched upon before, school facilities impact upon students’ intention to learn. In the twelve case studies, various learning resources had been provided by the schools in the city and in some urban areas, including television, radio, computer and internet access. When students were asked about the learning equipment, the majority of responses were in agreement. Students wanted sufficient facilities for them to learn, particularly information technology. Most students, for example (73 %), agreed they learned English from a textbook while almost half learned English via computer games (48 %) and 44 per cent by mobile phones (Table 8.1). It was clearly evident that students learn English mostly from textbooks but the use of the new technologies will be expected to increase. The lack of use of online learning methods was due to computer unavailability at home or even at school. With the improvement in electronic communication technologies, it was not difficult for students to gain access to the internet to find sources for learning or to have fun such as games. A senior teacher in CS 3 acknowledged that when she asked students to do tasks at home, they could be creative, designing the picture as well as the texts in good English.

**Table 8.1: Ways to Learn English (N=363)**

No	Statement	Agree (3)		So – so (2)		Disagree (1)		Average
		N	%	N	%	N	%	
1.	I learn some English from our computer at home	100	27	112	31	151	42	1.86
2.	I learn some English from our computer at school	92	25	139	38	132	37	1.89
3.	I learn some English from computer games	173	48	85	23	105	29	2.19
4.	I learn some English from the mobile phone	159	44	82	22	122	34	2.10
5.	I learn some English from English textbooks	267	73	79	22	17	5	2.69

In the twelve case studies, the facilities provided by the schools were very different. Four schools (CS 1, CS 2, CS 3 and CS 4) had a language laboratory, which however, seemed not to be used by language teachers. When it did happen it was due to teachers’ competence in operating them and teachers’ awareness capacity to create an interesting and motivating learning activity. Basically, the



language laboratory consisted of one computer at the front (teacher's table) and students were in the permanent booths with their headphones on and a knob to adjust the volume and to communicate with the teacher. Most urban and rural schools had such language laboratories. It was needed to listen to various 'authentic' materials because most language teaching materials provided by the schools were cassettes and some on compact discs. Two schools (CS 1 and CS 3) provided two active speakers on the wall. The two international program schools (CS 3 and CS 4) which were the largest schools, had well equipped facilities. Besides having various laboratories such as science, language, computer, and AVA room, each class for this international program was provided with a set of computers, including small active speakers as well as a printer and a permanent LCD hanging on the ceiling and a WiFi area; even in CS 4, there was a CC TV in the corner of the classroom. When the researcher asked what it was for, the vice principal simply remarked that it was to prevent cheating during examinations.

Most students, particularly in rural areas, had no computer at home nor at school while students living in the city were provided with various electronic tools to learn English, including internet access. Some large schools in urban (CS 2, CS 6, CS 8, CS 11) and rural (CS 5 and CS 9) areas had a computer laboratory; however, it was used only for the information technology subject of two hours in length per week. English has an average of at least five teaching hours. The failure to use the computer laboratory happened because of teachers' incompetence with computers or their lack of commitment to improve their English language teaching. Two female teachers in CS 9 remarked that using a computer in class was time consuming; while a senior teacher as well as a language laboratory technician in CS 2 contended that no language teacher (Bahasa Indonesia, English, Arabic and Javanese) used the language laboratory or computer in class.

Language laboratories, moreover, seemed not to be used by language teachers. They gave different reasons for this. The following outlines the situation in each school.

**CS 1:** This national standard school located in an urban area had actually been provided with a new language laboratory with some CDs from one of the publishers in Yogyakarta. An interview with the laboratory technician revealed that teachers used the language laboratory only very rarely. Teachers and the principal acknowledged the system was new and they were still unable to operate it. They needed to be assisted by the laboratory technician who was a secondary school graduate. The laboratory technician said that the hardware was in fact complicated, so the teachers avoided using it, and students' seating arrangements were not flexible. Groupwork activities were difficult to realize. English teachers preferred to have the English class in the science laboratory than in the language laboratory. For students, there were five computers available in the library with internet access. Students used these computers and internet access for games during recess.

**CS 2:** There were three laboratories in this medium-sized Islamic school, namely, the science, language and computer laboratories. Their coordinator was the senior English language teacher and she was the only teacher who used the language laboratory to teach grade nine. No other language teacher whether teaching Javanese, Bahasa Indonesia, English or Arabic conducted their teaching in the language laboratory because they believed that it would be too complicated and it took time to prepare. In her opinion, the use of any laboratory for all subjects was not really significant. In the language laboratory, there was one computer at the front (the teacher's table) and students were in the permanent booths, so it was difficult to have student group work. In the individual booth, students had their headphones on and a knob to adjust the volume and to communicate with the teacher. Previously, the internet connection was from the only computer, but WiFi had just been made available in this laboratory. In addition, the computer laboratory was being renovated with funding from a government grant through the "one school one lab" program. This school had received 200 million rupiah (AUD \$ 20,000) to upgrade the outdated computers and to provide WiFi access for all areas of the school. The school was planning to respond to this grant with a teachers' workshop to optimize the use of the new facilities for learning. But it was still in the planning stages by the coordinator with the principal and other teachers not being involved at all.

**CS 3:** In the language laboratory of this large Catholic school, students did not have headphones in each booth. They listened to two speakers on the wall. To manage all laboratories, teachers themselves were responsible when they had used it such as English teachers being responsible for the language laboratory, the science teachers for the science laboratory and information and technology teacher for the computer laboratory. Those who had a laptop with them could use this facility such as searching the internet for learning resources or to do tasks. Most teachers had their own laptop and the principal said that they had sufficient knowledge to deploy information technology for teaching and learning. The school had conducted workshops about information technology in 2008, the beginning year of the pilot schools of international standard. The principal of CS 3 noted that most teachers had participated in a workshop regarding information technology. This was to prepare teachers to teach in the international class. Most teachers had their own laptop and connected it to the LCD and sometimes used WiFi in class. However, based on the limited time of observation, the English lesson depended much on students' textbook and the workbook composed by its foundation. For students, there were five computers available in the library.

**CS 4:** Each of the classrooms of this large international school was equipped with a computer, printer, LCD, air conditioner and CCTV, even though most teachers used their own laptop. In terms of laboratories, there were some such as a computer, AVA, mathematics and language laboratories as well as two laboratories for natural science. A social science teacher was appointed to coordinate all laboratories. He said that he had more teaching hours, so the teachers themselves were

responsible for managing the laboratories. The language laboratory had been renovated since the computer system had been damaged due to heavy rain. It had been two years since the English teachers had used this laboratory. This indicated that the English language teachers did not really need or did not conduct their teaching in the language laboratory. It was reasonable since each classroom had been well equipped and all teachers could use the sound system kept in the teachers' room. The teachers said that the school needed to conduct a workshop on the use of this new laboratory because all equipment was digital. There were 36 monitors and keyboards, including headsets but all were operated and controlled by a computer for the teacher.

**CS 5:** Computers and internet access were badly needed by students at this isolated rural school because they had no facilities at home due to their parents' very limited financial resources. "This school had WiFi but a small number of teachers use it, it might be the very slow access and teachers' motivation and knowledge of computers", said the vice principal. In fact, lack of motivation and of knowledge of computers seemed to lay behind teachers' unwillingness to access the internet. In-service training conducted at the school or elsewhere was lacking. Electronic media was still difficult to access, while non-electronic media was rarely used due to teachers' time availability to create materials and it was difficult to obtain learning resources.

The vice principal said there were five computers in the library with internet access available for teachers. The students could use the computer laboratory to access the internet; however, they used it for social interaction such as facebook. They never used it as a learning resource as they did not understand how to find learning resources because the teachers themselves never asked students to use or teach them how to get online references.

**CS 6:** This poorly resourced Islamic urban school had a laboratory computer for the information technology subject. There was neither a language laboratory nor a multimedia laboratory nor was there WiFi access. In the classroom, there were only a whiteboard and outdated chairs and tables. In the teachers' room, one computer and printer were provided for teachers' preparation in teaching. When the researcher was in the teachers' room, some teachers were using their own laptops.

**CS 7:** This small rural school had very limited support. The building itself as well as the library, the classrooms and the teachers' room were dusty and looked dirty. The rooms were dark because of a lack of light bulbs. There was no laboratory. Two computers were used mostly by the staff (mostly administration staff); one of them was connected to the internet. This computer was sometimes used by the junior English teacher to make a test particularly to find a reading text; the senior one preferred to access the internet from a computer cafe (*warung internet – warnet*) close to her house.

**CS 8:** This small boarding school had only a multimedia laboratory with internet access and one computer in the teachers' room connected to the internet. The laboratory was used to find any kind of information from the internet regarding their tasks or for public speaking. There were 30 computers in total. However, this facility was used mostly in the information and technology subject. English teachers had never used this laboratory for teaching English or to find online references. "I only use the tape recorder and cassette in class but it happened a long time ago", said the senior English teacher. Regarding the language laboratory, the principal remarked, "The school area is the students' language laboratory. They communicate two weeks in English and two weeks in Arabic. If we had a language laboratory, we would need a laboratory technician to take care of it, and as I told you, the problem of this school in implementing the KTSP curriculum is the insufficient competence of school staff, including teachers, and school facilities. This school depends much on the funds given by the foundation (PDHI) and parents".

The junior teacher added that another English teacher who was good with computers would teach with her laptop and LCD provided by the school. It occurred very rarely and the other teachers tended to teach with whiteboard and markers. It might be due to the very limited time teaching (40 minutes) for one teacher, because it took time to set up all the equipment. Another noteworthy fact was that in the medium-sized hall in the school yard, there was a big flat television on the wall. This television was turned on only on Thursday night and students watched together the national television programs. In the classroom, there was only a whiteboard, chair and table.

**CS 9:** This medium-sized government school had only a multimedia laboratory and it was used for the information technology subject. In the English teaching process, teachers acknowledged that media had never been used, particularly electronic equipment, such as tape, TV and computer. "We don't have enough time to prepare media for teaching. If we use for instance media in class such as the computer, we spend much time preparing, and it is wasting time".

**CS 10:** The small-sized Islamic school had only a science laboratory. Regarding computers, there was only one. It was connected to the internet; however, this limited equipment was used only by the office staff. It was never used by teachers in general; this might be due to teachers' lack of computer literacy or their unwillingness to use it. All classrooms were provided with minimal furniture – table, chair and blackboard. One room was used for teachers and students praying during recess time.

**CS 11:** There were only two laboratories in this national standard school, one science and another computer. The computer laboratory was connected to the internet but it was not generally used by teachers and students; only the information technology subject was conducted in this laboratory.

“We very rarely use the internet in the teachers’ room or computer laboratory due to its slow access. Our teaching material is mostly from the textbook, so it’s not necessary to have internet access”, said the two English teachers. The school provided two laptops and portable LCDs for teachers to explain the teaching material.

**CS 12:** There was only a science laboratory since the 2006 earthquake had damaged this small sized rural school. There were in total seven rooms: three classrooms, one teachers’ room, one small staff room with an outdated and broken-down computer, one ‘dusty and rarely opened’ library and one ‘dusty and messy’ science laboratory. This science laboratory seemed not to be used as it was supposed to be – it was commonly used as a prayer room for the teachers and students though the researcher never observed anyone at prayer. The classrooms were in good condition with ceramic floors compared to other rooms which were dark, and also dusty with cement flooring that looked dirty. Due to these very unconducive conditions, when the researcher had finished collecting the data in this school, the principal eventually asked for money or a set of computers or books for students. He thought that the researcher’s coming was for the sake of giving funds to the school; he had no idea about research.

Of the 12 case studies, three schools (CS 1, CS 2 and CS 3) had language laboratories but they were rarely used by the teachers. In CS 1, the teachers contended that it was because of its complicated system and the seating arrangement while in CS 2, the only senior English language teacher conducted most of her teaching in this laboratory. She was interested in improving her teaching through this language laboratory that provided internet access. In CS 3, the two teachers liked to teach in the classroom which each had a LCD projector that could be connected to teachers’ laptops with WiFi in the school area. In CS 4, the multimedia laboratory had been provided though it had not been used since it had been damaged by the rain. However, due to the ‘international’ school program, many classrooms had been well equipped with a computer, printer, LCD projector and CCTV in all classrooms. The three interviewed teachers noted that they needed extra time to prepare their teaching by using such electronic equipment. Most schools (CS 2, CS 5, CS 6, CS 8, CS 9 and CS 11) had a computer laboratory, but used only for the information technology subjects. English teachers rarely taught in this laboratory due to their limited knowledge, internet access as well as its maintenance. A teacher with 26 years’ experience (CS 2) pointed out in his interview that he was ‘fearful’ conducting his teaching in the language laboratory. “I am afraid of ‘breaking’ the language laboratory”, he said. Data from students’ survey schedule noted that over 90 per cent of teachers used a blackboard or whiteboard.

The learning environment in schools particularly in information technology provided by the schools depended very much on school location, school category and the use of such technology by

English teachers. Both schools in the city, public and private, were well equipped with various learning technology tools, even with internet access including WiFi. Urban public and private schools had sufficient learning facilities; however, they were not used very often due to impracticality, lack of maintenance or inadequate skills of English teachers. Rural schools, however, had very limited learning facilities. Some had a computer laboratory that was used infrequently by information technology teachers, but never by English teachers. They argued that it was ‘wasting’ time. Some private schools had only one computer but it was used by the administration staff, not teachers. To make it worse, students learnt information technology subject, but it was only ‘in theory’, visualizing what a computer is like.

The school context and its facilities, in addition, sometimes worsened the English learning atmosphere. Most schools in rural areas did not have computers nor language laboratories. When they did, for example, have a computer laboratory, it was for another subject. The CS 5 vice principal and the CS 2 senior teacher remarked that the schools previously provided computers to be cheaply rented by students and they seemed to enjoy social networking such as using facebook as well as games, though the school then stopped providing them because of maintenance problems. Another factor was English teachers’ incompetence in utilizing the computer for teaching purposes. Many teachers who had sufficient computer skills claimed that computer-assisted teaching took too much time by way of preparation and both teachers and students would be ‘late or left behind’ in achieving the target of teaching (basic competence) as stipulated by the government. To make matters worse, printed materials such as textbooks, magazines and newspapers in English were generally lacking – two private rural schools, for example, lent students the textbook only during class time with one book for every two students.

Teachers in the city and urban areas which were supported by sufficient school facilities sometimes tried to engage students using ‘electronic tools’. In the classroom, some teachers used an LCD and their own laptop to present their PowerPoint presentations or a downloaded video. This was done because of the researcher’s classroom observation. Even though they had prepared their lesson plans in such a way as to engage students’ participation, in fact, what happened was not really positive. Some students were not participating actively even though the teachers had tried to engage them. The following paragraphs were data based on classroom observation.

In CS 1 with an average of 32 students per class, the teachers had prepared well and they conducted their class in the science laboratory because they had a permanent LCD. But, the students kept talking to each other in Javanese while the teachers were preparing and reading the explanation written on the slides. The teachers failed to create an interesting class. The two teachers always read the material on the PowerPoint slides and continued to read the comprehension questions,

sometimes translating the word(s) or sentence(s) that contained difficult vocabulary items. Some students kept themselves busy copying the explanation into their books.

In CS 2 with 35 students, the senior teacher conducted the teaching in the language laboratory and used a CD to teach listening skills. However, the students remained passive. The teacher eventually shouted in English, “Why are you stressed? If you want to smile, please; if you make mistakes, let’s correct it; OK, if you feel bad, let’s sing our previous song”. The students remained silent, not responding. The teacher dominated the teaching time explaining the structure of the text followed by a vocabulary task. The two other English teachers taught while standing in the middle of the classroom and explaining the simple present tense followed by a dictation task. The students again became noisy, talking to each other in Javanese, though the teacher explained loudly over the noise. This teacher later said, “It’s hard for us to motivate students to learn English. They are completely different from those in the city who learn through their English classes after school and are supported by good facilities”.

In CS 3, the senior teacher conducted the English teaching in the language laboratory. The students’ class participation was good, the teacher always tried to engage them by giving them questions or asking for comment. The teacher sometimes spoke in English and she translated into Bahasa Indonesia. Some students exhibited good participation if they sat close to the teacher (front/first row). The students sitting at the back responded to the teacher’s question when they were asked. If not, they kept silent.

In CS 4, the female senior English teacher focussed on listening skills. She used the CDs from English textbooks (*English on Sky*) published by an Indonesian publisher. Though all students already had this textbook, the teacher ‘copied and cut’ the tasks for listening skill exercise. In her teaching, she spoke in English clearly; when it was the moment to do the tasks, she asked students many times about what to do; she sometimes spoke in Bahasa Indonesia but only to check students’ comprehension of the task instructions. The students participated actively in the teaching and learning. It seemed the students enjoyed her teaching due to her attitude and her techniques in engaging students to be active participants.

Most students had their own laptops in the senior male English teacher’s class, except for two students who had forgotten to bring theirs, so the teacher asked them to work together with other friends. The teacher had his own laptop although there was a computer that had been connected to the LCD. The aim of his class, based on classroom observation and the lesson plan, moved from teaching recount text to how to send an email. Another observation was that students kept busy with their laptops rather than listening to the teacher. Some students used a headset to listen to their



laptops. When students found problems with their laptop, some asked the teacher in Bahasa Indonesia and some spoke in Javanese to the teacher or their friends.

To summarize, the school facilities were diverse across the twelve case studies. The city schools were provided with sufficient laboratories, including a multimedia laboratory. Schools in urban areas had both a computer and language laboratory but they seemed not to be used, certainly not in teaching English. Rural schools had very limited facilities.

## 8.2 Learning Resources

Generally, each school had a library containing textbooks for all subjects, dictionaries and local newspapers and magazines in Bahasa Indonesia and Javanese. The only library which provided English newspapers (*Jakarta Post*) was in the large CS 4. Regarding librarians, only the two largest schools (CS 3 and 4) had full time librarians; in other schools, the principals asked one of the teachers to take responsibility. The following paragraphs describe learning resources provided in each library of the twelve case studies.

**CS 1:** *Let's Talk* which is written in English and published by a major Indonesian publisher is provided in the library of this medium sized urban school. The teachers said that the book matched the minimum standard to achieve basic competence for junior high schools. The teachers depended much on the textbook and student workbook although they were published as far back as 2005 . The librarian said that *Let's Talk* was lent to students, one book per student. Students were strongly recommended to buy a student workbook or *Lembar Kerja Siswa* (LKS) published by a local Indonesian publisher which was cheaper than the English textbooks. This workbook was more for activities/tasks to be done as homework. When the researcher was observing, all students had their *Let's Talk* and students' workbook on their tables. The teachers said, "When students don't have textbooks, they need to find a solution by borrowing from the library or buying". Other references provided in the library were English novels, fables (written by the senior teacher) and dictionaries. However, such learning resources were not significantly used by either teachers or students. "The students borrow the novels when they are asked to read and do homework". Data from the survey showed that 80 per cent of students learn English through textbooks even though teachers sometimes obtained teaching material from the internet provided by the school.

**CS 2:** The library was managed by a teacher teaching social science. Learning resources in the library were limited. The librarian said that English learning resources were textbooks from some publishers. Some students borrowed and took them home. However, when the researcher observed the library, many English textbooks were still in good condition even though they were published



in 2005. The library also provided local newspapers and magazines in Bahasa Indonesia and Javanese.

**CS 3:** This large city school sold student textbook and workbook created by English teachers under the foundation's sponsorship; while English teachers had their English modules. Some English teachers made the modules for their own teaching purposes. In the library, different kinds of reading, such as encyclopedia, dictionaries, magazines, novels, and comics in English were provided. Some students spent their time in the library in their recess time to read or to use the computer with internet access for learning or games.

**CS 4:** Besides having WiFi access in all school areas, the library provided many learning resources. There were English textbooks for regular and international classes, novels, magazines and newspapers such as *The Jakarta Post*. There were three librarians, one of whom, the coordinator, was a teacher. The two other librarians mentioned that the library was visited much in recess time and after school time. The students sometimes did their tasks in the library when the teacher asked them to summarize some items from a newspaper, magazine or novel. The library was small but comfortable. There was an English corner as well, providing English dictionaries and other teaching materials. Five computers with internet access were very much used whether to play games or do academic tasks. The library was in the same building as the school mosque and there was an air conditioner as well.

**CS 5:** *Let's Talk* was provided in this medium sized school library. The teachers depended much on the textbook and the student workbook although they were published as far back as 2005. The librarian said that *Let's Talk* was lent to students, one book for each student. During observation, all students had their *Let's Talk* and students' workbook on their tables. Other references provided in the library were some English short stories.

**CS 6:** The library at this village madrasah provided English textbooks from the directorate entitled *English in Focus*. There were no other learning resources such as magazines, newspapers or novels in English. Two English books given by some parents were about the history of the United States.

**CS 7:** Teachers depended very much on textbooks. The library in this small, private rural school lent the students the textbook, *English in Focus*, though there was only one book for every two students. This textbook could be downloaded from MONE website; however, these textbooks were given by the district in book form as hard copy. In addition, the students were strongly recommended to buy the workbook (LKS) written by local teachers in the district, which was cheaper than the textbook.

**CS 8:** The library books of this pesantren were provided by the district education offices both from MONE and MORA. Various English learning resources such as books, novels, magazines, textbooks, cassettes and the Qur'an with English language translation were displayed in the library. Generally, the quantity of Bahasa Indonesia and Arabic language learning resources was greater than for English. Other textbooks used by the teachers and students were *Sukses Unas* (be successful in the national examination). Another noteworthy feature from the classroom observation was that one of the students had two thick books discussing grammar. These books are commonly used by undergraduate students.

**CS 9:** This rural government school provided insufficient learning resources. In the library, for example, the English textbooks were limited in terms of their variety, while online access available in the multimedia laboratory was rarely used, particularly not by the English teachers. It seemed they were too 'lazy' to prepare the equipment to maximize its learning potential. Based on classroom observation, the students had a textbook entitled *Let's Talk* and a student workbook. The teachers, however, had more textbooks from different publishers as well as grammar books such as *Essential English* and *English Sentence Structure*. This inferred that the teachers enriched the teaching material from various references, outdated books used by undergraduate students, written by local, national and international writers.

**CS 10:** This Islamic village school had a very limited number of books. The condition of the 'library' and books was very poor. Many textbooks were old and not in good condition. The principal noted that the library was being renovated even though the researcher did not see any 'renovated' room in the school. "We once had a tape recorder but it was 'missing or stolen'", said the principal. Regarding English, the number of textbooks (*English in Focus*) provided by the district was less than the number of students; so, in learning English, the teacher brought and lent the students textbooks during the English language class, one book to every two students, and when the class had finished, the students handed them back to the teacher for the next class. When the researcher asked whether the teacher gave other activities to do at home, the teacher said, "I give homework to students very rarely and it is not from the textbooks due to lack of learning resources for students to learn at school or home". Once a week, every Monday, there was a 'library van' from the district and many students borrowed a book, magazine or novel, all in Bahasa Indonesia.

**CS 11:** The government town school provided English textbooks and some dictionaries, English-Indonesia. The textbooks were *English in Focus* for students; while other textbooks such as *English on Sky*, *English in Context*, student workbook (LKS) such as *Ratih* and *Rasio* as well as dictionaries were strongly recommended by the English teachers. The senior teacher said, "our teaching material is mostly from the textbook, so it's not necessary to have internet access".

**CS 12:** In this small private school, the two teachers remarked that they had various books as learning resources for themselves; for students, they were asked to borrow from the library (*English in Focus*) with one book for two students. When the senior teacher had a different task from another textbook such as from *Yudhistira* publisher, she directly asked one of the students to make a copy or write it on the blackboard. When the researcher observed the junior teacher in class, he wrote some sentences, not from a textbook, as a task on the blackboard.

A small telling incident happened when the researcher observed the class. The senior teacher asked the students about homework; they responded that they had homework but they made a noisy outcry ‘protesting’ at the homework. Some of them eventually spoke in Javanese saying that the library was always closed, so they could not do their homework.

All libraries except for CS 10 and CS 12, had sufficient learning resources in terms of textbooks, local magazines and newspapers. Two schools in urban (CS 1 and CS 2), city (CS 3 and CS 4) and rural (CS 5) areas used *Let’s Talk* and *English on Sky* published by Indonesian publishers. A madrasah (CS 6), a small private rural school (CS 7), a small sized Islamic school (CS 10) and a national standard government school (CS 11) provided *English in Focus* which was promoted by the government to the National Book Centre and distributed by the districts; though in some schools in rural areas, they had limited or a complete lack of learning resources from the district.

Additionally, student workbooks or (LKS) published by local and national Indonesian publishers were strongly recommended by all teachers. This was reasonable as the prices of these students’ workbooks were much cheaper than other publishers though many academics said that these were not good enough for students to learn English.

Though various kinds of textbooks had already been published, Collins (2006) reviewed fifteen textbooks used by secondary schools in Indonesia and he concluded,

“The textbooks do not always provide accurate information about the details of English usage, and this is likely to have a negative impact on the accuracy of both the teachers’ and the students’ knowledge of English structure and use. ...there is evidence of an inadequate treatment of the fundamental relationships between form and meaning, and between class and function, and – most alarmingly – many straightforward factual errors. English teachers and educators in Indonesia therefore, it would seem, need to cultivate a critical stance in assessing the quality of grammar presentations when selecting and using textbooks.” (Collins, 2006, p. 8)

Due to the limited number of textbooks in the library, most teachers in urban and rural areas asked students to have LKS published by various Indonesian publishers. Most teachers in the city also strongly suggested their students to have the LKS or student workbook due to its cheaper price. They thought the tasks in the student workbook were good for students to practice and get more

understanding even though experts and practitioners in English language argue they are not good textbooks written by incompetent writers. A national curriculum designer contended, “Teachers are not curriculum developers, all they want are the textbooks and they follow whatever is written in the textbooks; however, the textbooks are not assessed and approved by *Pusat Buku* (National Book Centre) and they are written by incompetent writers who suffer from a low competence in English”. A book writer and an English lecturer pointed out that more than 50 per cent of English language teachers taught with LKS (student workbook), and less than 5 per cent wrote their own teaching materials.

### 8.3 Summary

Communicative language teaching has been widely deployed in foreign language contexts. English has become an Asian language (Kachru, 1998) as well as an international language (McKay, 2002); thus teachers need to know what teaching materials are to be discussed. With the rapid growth of information technology, teaching materials and various text types can be accessed through the internet.

Regarding facilities, a limited number of schools had a language laboratory for their teaching and learning. Most had a computer laboratory which, however, was used for the information technology subject. The schools that had been provided with multimedia and language laboratories, for example, still found difficulty to use such media in teaching; some teachers said that teaching with a computer took more time to prepare. There was internet access in some schools in the city, particularly in the international program schools and it was accessed by both teachers and students. In urban and rural areas, few schools had internet access though most ‘competent’ teachers complained that it was too slow. In general, it seemed to indicate that most teachers seemed not well trained to use such electronic tools in teaching.

In terms of learning resources, the schools basically provided the English textbooks though in some schools in rural areas, they had very limited numbers of textbooks. Most teachers asked students to have the LKS published by local publishers and the books had not been assessed by the National Book Centre. One of the national textbook writers said, “What they write is not English, like the expressions and so on”. Also, principals and district supervisors outlined the lack of learning resources (textbooks, magazines and short stories) particularly schools in rural and some in urban areas. Most learning resources such as textbooks were printed far back, for example, at the beginning of 2000s.

## **CHAPTER 9**

### **EVALUATION OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CURRICULUM: STUDENT PERSPECTIVES**

Students' perceptions of the curriculum implementation are important to ascertain in order to see whether the curriculum matched their needs in learning. As Nunan (1996) suggested, curriculum evaluation occurs at various levels – macro and micro. The micro is conducted at the classroom level and involves teachers and learners. This chapter discusses students' motivation and perception of English language teaching in their schools and also students' achievement based on the national examination.

#### **9.1 Motivation to Learn English**

Of the 363 students of the twelve schools who filled out the questionnaire (see Appendix 01.04, p. 247) regarding their motivation to learn English, their answers were categorized into two, namely, their levels of motivation and the mechanism they used to improve their English.

The majority of students who were asked whether "I like learning English" (Table 9.1) – 61 per cent gave a positive response, 31 per cent were so-so while a small minority (8 %) were negative. When asked to rank their favourite subject of the four under national examination, 40 per cent agreed that English was their most favoured subject, 52 per cent were in doubt and 8 per cent disagreed. In terms of their motivation to learn English for the future, 78 per cent responded in the positive, 17 per cent were not sure and 5 per cent negative; regarding the need for English for further study, 75 per cent responded in the positive, 20 per cent in doubt and 5 per cent disagreed.

Their motivation to learn English seemed to be quite high and it related to their aspiration to have a better life though, for the majority, it was not their favorite subject. However, a significant minority (40 %) said it was their favorite subject. When asked about English as their favorite subject, their enthusiasm dropped away substantially. The item with the lowest average score concerned with motivation was the fact that many students did not learn English after school (Table 9.1). This happened due to the students' and teachers' time availability and extra classes were conducted mostly for Year Nine to prepare them for the national examination.

**Table 9.1: Students' Motivation in Learning English (N=363)**

No	Statement	Agree (3)		So – so (2)		Disagree (1)		Average
		N	%	N	%	N	%	
1.	I like learning English	261	72	92	25	10	3	2.69
2.	English is my favorite subject	145	40	189	52	29	8	2.32
3.	I need English for my future life	284	78	63	17	16	5	2.74
4.	I need English for my further study	273	75	73	20	17	5	2.71
5.	My parents like me learning English	283	78	66	18	14	4	2.74
6.	I go to English classes after school	88	24	196	54	79	22	2.03

Teachers in CS 4, an international pilot school, acknowledged that extra English classes were offered by cooperating with a private institution in which the instructors (mentors) came and taught at the school, and sometimes students went to an English class in that institution. In CS 3, also an international pilot school, teachers themselves taught extra classes after school hours; while in schools in rural areas such as CS 5, the teachers admitted that they sometimes cancelled the extra class or shortened the time due to bad weather; they then went home before it rained. These extra classes were mostly funded by parents or from the school operational fund. In CS 7 and 12, there were no extra classes because there were no teachers to teach them. In brief, most schools provided extra classes for the four subjects examined in the national examination; the target was to achieve better scores, not to motivate students to like and learn more English.

Comparing the levels of students' motivation in government and private schools, there was little difference in terms of students' motivation even though the school facilities were quite different (Table 9.2). In government schools, the students' motivation index which was constructed based on the six questions regarding their motivation to learn English, was 2.58 while in private schools 2.49; It implied that the average of students' motivation between public and private schools was mostly similar with the answer 'Agree'. In most government schools, whilst they had computer laboratories, they were used mostly for the information technology subject rather than being appropriately utilized for learning English or for internet access for learning purposes. In terms of the 2012 national examination results, the average score for the six government schools was 6.16 (range: 8.62 – 5.09) and 5.65 (range: 8.30 – 4.54) for the six private schools.

This survey confirmed that most students responded positively to learning English for their own reasons as was clearly seen in the focus group discussions. Though some responses mentioned that English was the most difficult subject to learn, they were very aware that they needed to learn English to gain a good score to pass their national examination and continue on to senior high school.

**Table 9.2: Students' Motivation Index X Type of School (Government/Private)**

	Total	Agree (3)		So – so (2)		Disagree (1)		Average
		N	%	N	%	N	%	
Government	172	110.80	64.50	50.40	29.10	10.80	6.40	2.58
Private	191	111.50	58.10	62.80	33.00	16.70	8.90	2.49

Additionally, students' better motivation in learning English might be due to their understanding that English is valuable for them to learn even though it seemed to indicate that the reasons they gave for learning English were instrumental. Their reasons were, for example, to have better lives as well as better jobs and salaries.

In terms of the school location factor, the students in the city schools responded more positively to learning English (with an average 2.74) than in urban (2.50), and rural schools (2.59). Table 9.3 compares students' motivation in learning English between the three different areas. This shows that students living in the city or cosmopolitan communities seemed to be better motivated in English due to seemingly being a member of international second language speaking communities (Kormos & Csizér, 2008). This can be clearly seen in the average scores in the English national examination in 2012 which was 8.62 and 8.30 (out of ten) for the two city schools, whereas it was 5.66 for students in urban schools and 5.13 for regional/rural schools. Students in urban and rural areas seemed to have had very similar levels of motivation in learning English with the average score in urban areas 2.50 while 2.59 in rural areas (see Table 9.3). Lamb (2007) asserted that children in provincial capitals in Indonesia have been exposed to situations of promoting the English language in early education experience through TV, magazines and songs which gave significant contribution to early age language learning. In contrast, youngsters living in urban and rural areas may find this scenario 'vague and remote' (p. 772).

**Table 9.3: Students' Motivation X Types of School Location**

	Total	Agree (3)		So – so (2)		Disagree (1)		Average
		N	%	N	%	N	%	
City	68	52.8	77.9	12.4	17.6	2.8	4.4	2.74
Urban	203	115.8	57.1	71.8	35.4	15.4	7.6	2.50
Rural	92	53.7	58.3	29.0	31.5	9.3	10.1	2.59

Data regarding motivation was also gained from the focus group discussions. The students usually stressed the importance of the national examination as a driving force though many said they needed English to progress to further education and to gain a better life chance and pursue a future career. A small number expressed their eagerness to improve their English communicative competence.

They indeed were hampered by a lack of motivation due to the school's conditions and facilities, their parents' attitudes and the surrounding farming environment whose hidden message seemed to be that they do not need higher levels of education for their lives. A vice principal in CS 9, a teacher and two English teachers for example, noted that parents gave little support to the school due to their economic background and low education attainment. The teachers said, "Parents here have low education background. They give all the responsibilities to the school and they do not even want to give any contribution at all". They further said that some parents even thought that they got some money in the form of the school operational fund.

Others acknowledged their negative attitude to English with some students describing English as a 'monster' together with the mathematics subject. This attitude may have been because the teachers sometimes are 'strict' in terms of English formulae or rules that students need to memorize rather than creating activities for students to have fun in learning English. Students said in Javanese to the researcher, "Ma'm, English teachers here explaining the material are difficult to understand and some of them are not very friendly and like to punish us when we make jokes in class".

The students' motivation in general is to have good grades in the national examination, not to achieve communicative competence. So, the notion of 'communicative competence' seemed to be merely in the government and school documentation. According to Littlewood (1981, p. 93), 'communicative skills occur when learners have motivation and opportunity to express their own identity to relate with the people around them'. In fact, students had limited time to expose their English capacity due to their sociolinguistic context as well as a lack of learning support from the schools and parents at home. The students were drilled by teachers to be able to answer questions in the national examination even though the data showed that English was always the lowest score gained in the national examination for students in rural areas.

An incident conversation occurred regarding the importance of English for students in urban schools which was raised by the principal of CS 6. "English is important particularly when they want to work abroad. However, the teaching of English failed even the students who have learnt English for three years but they are still unable to speak in English", he said. This seemed to imply that the English language program basically failed either in the national examination and communicative capacity. The principal himself did not understand why it happened so.

Only limited support can be found in rural schools. Of these twelve case studies, parental background in the city (CS 3 and CS 4) was mostly working in private institution or business as well as government employees. Almost all parents in urban and rural areas (CS 2, CS 5, CS 6, CS 7, CS 8, CS 9, CS 10 and CS 12) worked as farmers while two schools in urban areas (CS 1 and CS



11), were small business owners and casual workers. The data also implied that due to their 'low income', parents' activity was mostly devoted to earn money to survive; Though they worked as farmers, most were subsistent farmers and being casual workers in the 'dry season'. Some teachers remarked, "We need to persuade the students to go to school. Most parents here are primary school graduates and students live with grandparents. When they do live with their parents, they never even consult with us about the students' academic improvement". It indicated that the parents gave virtually no attention to their children's education often because they were away busy looking and working for money to survive; thus, schooling was not a major concern for such parents, according to the principal and the English teacher in CS 10.

Low motivation to learn English was due to various factors: inadequate family support, the use of the language in local area and the school facilities. In terms of family, most parents were busy fulfilling their daily needs and English language was treated merely as one of the subjects to be examined in the national examination. In contrast, awareness of the global context spurred many students in the city and urban areas to have much higher motivation to learn English due to their aspirations for further study and to have a better future salary. This finding is in line with what Bourdieu (1991) and Lamb (2007, p. 772) asserted when they suggested that 'social background factors and, in particular, the cultural, social and economic capital they bring to school, may help explain why individuals come to identify with a future-English-speaking self and act to realize their vision'.

Based on the researcher's observations, students, both at home and school, basically did not use English to communicate in their daily lives nor saw the need for English with international tourists, business people etc. Students in all areas – city, urban and rural – spoke Javanese to school staff, particularly on Saturdays as mandated by the Governor's Policy for Yogyakarta (No. 423.5/0912, year 2005) as part of the local content in the curriculum.

Motivation could be emanating from within (internal) or from without (external), and teachers play an important role in responding to students' motivational drivers. In fact, class observation in the twelve schools showed that students' classroom participation in learning English seemed to be passive though teachers in some schools had prepared their lesson plans in such a way as to motivate students to learn actively. They used, for example, an LCD and their own laptop to present their powerpoint presentation or a downloaded video.

The picture that emerged seemed to indicate that junior high school students had good instrumental motivation in learning English because of another factor, that is, the national examination. The finding is similar to what Kruidenier and Clément (1986) and Belmechri and Hummel (1998)

found, suggesting that in an EFL context, instrumental motivation is more prominent than the integrative one in particular students living in cities. Motivation was highest in the two international schools (*Rintisan Sekolah Bertaraf Internasional* – RSBI) with well-supported learning resources, and access to computers and the internet at school; some families with high socioeconomic status even provided internet access at home.

## 9.2 Student Perception

In curriculum implementation, students' achievement could be an indicator whether students' competence improved or not as has been desired by the government. Students' achievement can be observed in their performance at school particularly in class and in their competence measured by the results of their final examination which in this case was the national examination conducted at the end of their junior high school (Year 9); though students' competence in the four subjects – Bahasa Indonesia, English, mathematics and science – was measured only by the results of their examination taken over three days.

**Table 9.4: The Sequence of the Nationally Examined Subjects: Student Perspective**

	CS 1	CS 2	CS 3	CS 4	CS 5	CS 6	CS 7	CS 8	CS 9	CS 10	CS 11	CS 12	Average
<b>Bahasa Indonesia</b>	1	3	4	4	3	1	3	3	4	1	4	3	2.83
<b>English</b>	2	2	2	1	2	4	4	4	1	4	2	4	2.67
<b>Mathematics</b>	4	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	3	1	1	1.67
<b>Science</b>	3	4	3	3	4	3	2	2	3	2	3	2	2.83

When the students were asked what subject of the four core subjects they thought important by numbering them with 1 as the most important subject to be taught and 4 as the least important, most students (7 of 12 CS) answered mathematics (58 %); Bahasa Indonesia was put as the second choice (25 %), English (17 %) and science as the least importance to be learnt (Table 9.4). Students thought mathematics was important as their score in average for the national examination seemed to be low compared to other core subjects (see Table 9.5) over the two years of 2010 and 2011.

## 9.3 National Examination Results

Table 9.5 (a) shows the results of both the national examination (60 %) and school examination (40 %) in the academic year 2011/2012. It shows that the highest score was mathematics in CS 4 (9.39) and the lowest was a private rural school (CS 10) with 4.03. In terms of the average score of the four core subjects in the academic year 2010/2011 in the 12 schools, Bahasa Indonesia was the highest (7.31), science (6.46), English (6.24) and mathematics (6.04); while in 2011/2012, Bahasa Indonesia (8.42), science (6.52), mathematics (6.18) and English as the lowest average score, 5.91.

In two years, 2010 and 2011, Bahasa Indonesia showed an increase in the average result of 1.11 (15 %), a decrease in the English result 0.33 (5 %), an increase in mathematics 0.14 (2 %) and a decrease in science 0.06 (1 %).

**Table 9.5(a): The Results of National Examination 2011 - 2012**

Case Study	National Examination Grades in the Academic Year							
	2010/2011				2011/2012			
	B. Indo	English	Math	Science	B. Indo	English	Math	Science
1	7.87	7.10	7.87	8.09	9.24	6.81	8.61	7.98
2	6.98	5.12	4.55	5.84	8.10	4.57	4.73	5.34
3	8.26	8.52	8.23	8.33	9.36	8.30	8.78	8.02
4	8.53	8.99	9.26	9.24	9.51	8.62	9.39	9.09
5	7.34	6.02	5.56	6.30	8.71	5.61	6.18	6.02
6	6.98	5.13	4.39	5.50	8.24	4.59	4.41	5.22
7	6.32	4.08	5.16	5.24	8.32	4.93	4.39	5.22
8	7.74	6.92	6.13	6.71	8.59	6.05	6.11	6.17
9	7.40	6.30	5.63	6.47	8.37	5.09	5.60	6.02
10	6.72	5.26	3.95	5.06	8.00	4.54	4.03	4.93
11	7.74	6.85	7.28	NA	8.91	6.26	7.29	7.14
12	5.80	4.60	4.50	4.26	5.72	5.49	4.61	7.06
Average	7.31	6.24	6.04	6.46	8.42	5.91	6.18	6.52

Hamied (2012) found more than 50 % of senior high school students failed Bahasa Indonesia in the 2010 national examination. A similar situation happened also in Yogyakarta where students failed Bahasa Indonesia followed by English. One of the district supervisors thought that the national examination in 2010 was ‘purely’ to assess students’ competence with the KTSP curriculum. She further noted that the previous national examination for the English subject was the combination of the competency-based curriculum and the 1994 curriculum. So, this indicated that in the first national examination for the KTSP curriculum, students failed Bahasa Indonesia and English. Such failure might happen because Bahasa Indonesia is as a second language that is taught in schools stressing the importance of ‘memorizing rhetorical and syntactical categories of analysis which should be *baik dan benar* (‘good and correct’)’ (Lamb & Coleman, 2008, p. 190).

In terms of English, when the students were asked about their difficulties in learning English (see Appendix 01. 04, p. 248) such as understanding the native speakers’ talk, English teachers’ classroom instruction, speaking in English including pronunciation both in class and school, reading and writing in English including the grammar, structure and vocabulary items, with three optional answers – always, sometimes and never – the data showed that their answers were mostly ‘sometimes’. This implied two things, (1) the students pretend they understand the questions and

(2) they might be worried that their teachers would read the answers and impacted on their grade. So, the answer ‘sometimes’ could be ‘safe’ for them. Additionally, the ‘sometimes’ answers were difficult to understand as based on class observation, their engagement in the teaching and learning was ‘passive’ and the students seemed to be less motivated in learning English; however, in some cases they acknowledged their difficulties clearly, such as 67 per cent of students found difficulty in writing (CS 6), 85 per cent in grammar (CS 9) and 54 per cent in vocabulary items (CS 10).

**Table 9.5(b): The Results of National Examination 2011 - 2012 in Rank Order**

Case Study	National Examination Grades in the Academic Year							
	2010/2011				2011/2012			
	B. Indo	English	Math	Science	B. Indo	English	Math	Science
1	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
2	9	10	9	7	10	11	8	9
3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
5	7	7	7	6	5	6	5	7
6	8	9	11	8	9	11	10	10
7	11	12	8	9	8	9	11	11
8	4	4	5	4	6	5	6	6
9	6	6	6	5	7	8	7	8
10	10	8	12	10	11	12	12	12
11	5	5	4	NA	4	4	4	4
12	12	11	10	11	12	7	9	5

Table 9.5(b) shows how CS 4, CS 3, CS 1 and CS 11 were ranked in all subjects in both 2011 and 2012 in the top four places. The two schools were located in the city (CS 3 and CS 4) with the status of international standard schools while other two were national standard schools located in urban areas. Of course, having a good score in the national examination might result from the ‘school status’ which implied students had already been selected on the basis of their primary school scores, as acknowledged by CS 1 principal. Students there were ‘smart’ in terms of academic achievement. In contrast, most students in other case study schools, both in urban and rural areas, seemed to be normal mainstream, not the selective ones and the schools were potential schools, having B (good) for their accreditation.

An interesting aspect of the national examination results regarded the school managed under both the MONE and the MORA. This boarding school (CS 8) had a stable position in the academic achievement. Though students had more hours on religion subjects, the national examination results remained ‘good’. In contrast, the government madrasah rated badly.

## 9.4 Summary

Students in general put English as their less important subject compared to the other three. This might be because of their low score in mathematics. Bahasa Indonesia came up in the second place. It seemed to be learnt due to its status as a national language and as their second language for most of them. The data showed that both teachers and students spoke in low variety Bahasa Indonesia and Javanese in classroom instruction and to communicate among friends at school.

Though students gained good achievement for the national examination, this research proved that teachers focussed on merely linguistic competence. On a national scale that seemed to be no problem. However, students were unable to speak in English, for instance, with their strategic and sociocultural competence. The principal of CS 6 protested about students' incapacity even though students had been learning English since primary school.

English was treated as an important language to be learnt due to the national examination and also because of their belief that it would be useful for the future. To gain better scores in English, almost all students learnt English after school hours and additional classes were provided by the schools. The emergence of learning English after school was always discussed between schools and the parent representatives (school committee) at the beginning of the academic year. The discussion was about the fund to conduct such English classes after school hours. Most schools in the city and urban areas conducted English classes after school together with the other core subjects. It was to prepare students particularly in Year Nine to face the national examination. Students in rural schools seemed to 'struggle' because parents sometimes did not want to make any financial contribution; also, the distance of the schools and the weather sometime became the reasons why they hardly ever conducted English class after school.

Added to this, motivation to learn English in both public and private schools showed insignificant difference. Their motivation was good. Students in the city had much better motivation and seemed to have 'integrative motivation', that is, to gain a good score in the national examination as well as become 'competent' in English language skills.

Students' motivation in learning could have emanated from inside and outside factors. Students with intrinsic and extrinsic motivation revealed a positive attitude to English learning. However, their national examination or, in Gardner's & Lambert's terms, instrumental motivation, triggered them to learn English to be successful in the national examination that would be valuable for their future lives.

Parental background also played an important role in students' academic achievement, especially when parents supported students' learning such as sending them to extra classes after school hours at schools or outside schools (*bimbingan belajar* or *kursus*) or providing them with computer and internet access at home.

## **CHAPTER 10**

### **EVALUATION OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CURRICULUM: KEY FINDINGS DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

This chapter will elaborate our major findings concerning the evaluation of the KTSP curriculum presented in chapters four, five, six, seven, eight and nine based on the data obtained from the surveys and the interviews as well as school and class observation. The first section outlines the educational system in this decentralization covering the issue of school based management as well as the current curriculum practice. The capacities of principals as leaders at school, teachers' understanding regarding English language teaching, tension of the national examination, insufficient appreciation of ELT in the global economy, the issue of madrasah and rural schools with their facilities and teacher training institutions will be the focus in the next discussion. Recommendations will be highlighted in the last section.

As Hallinan (2000) noted, schools can be conceptualized in terms of social life, social system and social events. Schools as social life mean that society itself, communities, social groups and parents are central elements of the educational process in which the particular school context influences school outcomes. In the social system, schools play a dominant role in the development of the field; as social events, schools can be the interaction of macro-and micro-level processes. Macro links the structure and organization of schools to school level outcomes such as communication patterns, governance structures, school climate and social networks, while the micro level deals with students' attitudes, motivation, performance and social behavior. This research highlights various macro and micro level findings in the implementation of Indonesian government policy regarding the curriculum in a decentralized system of governance since the early 2000s.

#### **10.1 The Indonesian Schooling System: From Centralization to Decentralization**

Indonesian schooling has changed over time. In the precolonial era, education was begun at pesantrens which flourished in rural areas and were centred around the mosque. The aim of these Islamic boarding schools was to 'train scholars in Islamic religious teachings so they could spread Islam to other areas' (Christano & Cummings, 2007, p. 123). They also highlighted the fact that in the Dutch era from the 1600s, a restrictive social hierarchy segregated individuals based on ethnicity, starting at the top with Europeans, the native aristocracy and Eurasians, individuals of Chinese descent, and, at the bottom of the social hierarchy, the indigenous population. The social stratification based on ethnicity occurred in the Indonesian schooling system. Schools were only for Dutch families and a limited number of Javanese aristocrats who had positions in the colonial administration (ibid). In this era, education was centralized and schools were used to spread the

Christian faith in an attempt to replace the predominant religions (Hinduism, Buddhism and Islam). Jones (1976, p. 36) pointed out,

“For Christian churches and missions, the school, surrounded as it was by an aura of modernity and the power and success of the colonial order, and, as it promised, opening doors into desirable civil service employment, was a powerful tool for spreading the influence of Christianity.”

Indonesian people had no voice in this Netherlands system of education. The language and the methods used were borrowed from the European system; on the other hand, the *pesantrens* were for the poor native population living in rural areas (Buresh, 2002). *Kyai* and other indigenous authorities were removed from local government affairs. So access to schools was very limited for the indigenous people in Indonesia. Only a very few indigenes from elite groups were permitted to study in Dutch schools.

Such a situation changed under Japanese occupation (1942-1945) when the Dutch colonial system was changed to a national system in which a less stratified and more equal social system and the use of Bahasa Indonesia or Malay in classrooms was introduced and the use of Dutch books was prohibited (Buchori and Malik, 2004; Lamb and Coleman, 2008, p. 190). The aim of the education system in this era was to promote Indonesian nationalist interests (Rahman, 1997).

With independence in 1945, the country's motto 'unity in diversity' challenged people to work for national unity within diversity. Sukarno and Hatta established a national structure to govern various provinces with different ethnic and social profiles. In education, article 31 of the 1945 constitution stipulates that every citizen has the right to obtain an education and that the government has the responsibility to provide one national education system. The aim of schooling was to develop moral, responsible citizens who supported the founding principles (*Pancasila*) (Buchori and Malik, 2004). However, financial constraints limited government efforts; as a result, new schools were predominantly private and based on religious teaching and funding, mostly Islamic in Sumatra and Java and Christian in the eastern. Additionally, according to Jones (1976) and Postiglione (2007), Indonesian people were always illiterate due to lack of financial resources, insufficient facilities for schooling and untrained teachers.

Since independence, education has received high priority from most Indonesian governments even though the financial resources have only become more available since the early 1970s with the boom of the oil price (Liddle, 1985; Christano and Cummings, 2007). In the New Order era (1966-1998), Suharto continued the nation-building agenda and billions of Rupiah were distributed to all education sectors. The number of universities expanded; academics were sent overseas to obtain training while at secondary level, the number and quality of schools were improved. The significant



push has been in the primary level. During Soeharto's era, the government established 61,000 new primary schools (SD-INPRES – Presidential Instruction for Primary Schools) across provinces, even in the rural areas in Kalimantan and Irian Jaya. Additionally, poorer Indonesians were charged no fees. As a result, in the 1980s and 1990s, Indonesia benefited from high rates of economic growth with poverty reduction and improvements in health and education (World Bank, 1998). The aim of schooling was for nation-building, national unity, social cohesion and social stability (Nielson, 2003; Christano and Cummings, 2007).

The Asian financial crisis occurred in late 1997 known as *krismon* (*krisis moneter*), and the increasing of prices of oil and food brought further disaster to the economy. The IMF (International Monetary Fund) offered a loan package even though it then impacted with massive debt and political chaos. Habibie eventually replaced Suharto in 1998. At this time, the big bang approach of a decentralized system began to be implemented with the aim to achieve good governance for provinces and districts. One of the radical changes in education was the extension of basic schooling from six to nine years, officially introduced in 1994 with the target of reaching 95 per cent of the nation's students by 2004 (Kristiansen & Pratikno, 2006). The aim was still to continually develop human resources and ensure the transmission of cultural and national values (Christano and Cummings, 2007, p. 128). The point to be made here is that, in terms of mass schooling, the Indonesian system is still very young.

Regarding the schooling systems in the colonial era, the Dutch divided education into two: European oriented and Islamic content. Both employed a 6-3-3-4 structure consisting of primary, junior secondary, senior secondary and postsecondary. Van Der Kroef (1957) described how the schooling between 1945 and 1949 was a six year *Sekolah Rakjat* or "People's School", a three year junior high school (*Sekolah Menengah Pertama* – SMP, *Sekolah Teknik Pertama* – STP, and *Sekolah Menengah Ekonomi Pertama* – SMEP), a three year senior secondary school (*Sekolah Menengah Atas* – SMA) with specialization in literature and languages, mathematics and physics, and economic and commercial subjects). Vocational schools and teacher training schools were also provided, such as domestic science schools (*Sekolah Kepandaian Putri* – SKP), four year teachers' schools B (*Sekolah Guru B* – SGB), and three year teachers' schools at the secondary level (*Sekolah Guru A* – SGA) and two year schools for teachers of exceptional or disabled children.

European oriented schools were then managed by MONE while Islamic oriented schools were under MORA. More private schools (secular and religious institutions) were regulated under MONE. This arrangement remains up to now. The central government tended to be more 'generous' to schools under MONE rather than MORA. In terms of academic matters, however, there has been increasing collaboration, that is, (1) religion was taught in MONE schools and more

secular subjects such as science and mathematics were added to the curriculum under MORA schools, (2) sharing resources and (3) teaching personnel. According to Duncan (2000) the differences becomes blurry since both have to meet government national curriculum and examination requirements. In this, it still remains a deeply centralized system.

However, a significant difference for those living in rural areas was the limited academic achievement of students. Also, there was very few educational options at the secondary level in rural areas and those that are available are of very poor quality; thus, it also needs to be noted that a rather segregated system has resulted.

A major education reform occurred in 1994 with the introduction of nine years of basic education and the introduction of curricular content which responded to local culture and need. The local content curriculum was 20 per cent of the overall curriculum in which it was intended to insert local content (history, literature, stories, examples, place names, and so on) in the curriculum by either replacing or adding to the content developed by national curriculum experts (Christano and Cummings, 2007, p. 135). In the implementation of this local culture element, Coleman and Pudjiastuti (1995) found that English was taught in many parts of the country as the choice for local content subject.

The experience of a longstanding centralized system shaped Indonesian people's perspective to become very dependent on the government. As Bjork (2006) suggested,

“Many educators, socialized during the Soeharto period, regard the devolution reforms as merely another central government edict to which the usual safe response is verbal acquiescence without any significant change in behavior.” (p. 146)

Additionally, most Indonesian teachers (59 %) managed under MONE administration were civil servants. As civil service employees, their loyalty was to the state, rather than to students or their parents. Their classroom typically reflected New Order principles of being respectful to people in authority. Classroom instruction has traditionally concentrated on the development of students' cognitive skills, and employed pedagogical methods stressing memorization and repetition. Such practices might have persisted because both districts and schools were not ready to implement a new decentralized system. “New policies of autonomy have brought ‘considerable confusion’ leading to ‘duplication of work, lack of accountability, waste of resources and uncertainty and inconsistency”, noted Coleman et al. (2004, p. 59) in their research in Indonesia. The results of this study suggest this ‘considerable confusion’ is continuing.

Local authorities attempt to understand and implement the central directives, often making adjustments and changes. They manoeuvre around and tamper with the directives in trying to successfully implement the system at school level. Bjork (2006) pointed out the local educators are given authority in developing curriculum, financial matters and school practice; however, there is an unclear picture as to how local actors are responding to this in terms of policy and practice in schools. It cannot be denied that top down policy can create implementation difficulties for local people at times. So, there would have been a power sharing arrangement among provincial education office, district education office, district board of education and schools as well as through annual coordination meetings of education bureaucrats.

The colonial system made Indonesian people very dependent on the central government. In terms of education, the curriculum change since independence was to bring all schools of whatever type under government control. This was always necessary in a very large and diverse country. Even though since 1999, a decentralized system had been introduced on the ground with the responsibilities given to the districts, central government has kept ‘dictating’ policies to the local authorities (provinces and districts); and the local level has implemented the policies with unclear principles and confused guidance. Bjork (2006) asserted that the government should pay more attention to the implications of reform plans for local agencies and actors. He further said:

“Upper level officials will need to gain a deeper understanding of the conditions in which their policies are enacted. Their methods of training school-based employees must be revised so as to prepare those people to lead rather than follow. The system of incentives offered to local actors must be powerful enough to galvanise them into action. Civil servants will need more thorough and ongoing training in the skills required of them in their new roles.” (p. 147)

In terms of curriculum, it was mandated that provincial and districts offices had a team, namely *Tim Pengembang Kurikulum* (TPK). District supervisors (*pengawas*) are members of this team. Two senior district supervisors noted that their responsibility in the province was to explain central government policies to schools in other provinces. Generally, most supervisors were proud of their busy agenda visiting one province to another to observe or explain the policies stipulated by the central government while in the districts, due to the limited number of supervisors, many schools complained about the unclear guidance in curriculum implementation.

Whilst the vision and mission of the central government in respect of English language teaching in Indonesian high schools is clearly outlined, the disjuncture between the district level and individual schools is resulting in confusion of roles and responsibilities. It had been unclear for the individual school authorities in terms of curriculum, about what and how to implement it at the school level. As a result, teachers relied on the government (central). The evidence can be clearly seen in the school documentation (curriculum, syllabus and lesson plans) as well as the implementation. The

competencies in the content standard stipulated by the government should be achieved by all schools and the assessments were also made by the central government in the form of the national examinations. Lie (2007) called it ‘one-size-fits-all’ curriculum even though it is labelled as a school-based curriculum. To conclude, it is a nominally decentralized system even though it remains centralized.

### **10.1.1 School-based Management**

With the decentralized system introduced at the beginning of the 2000s, the MONE introduced the competency-based curriculum (CBC) together with school-based management or SBM (*Manajemen Peningkatan Mutu Berbasis Sekolah* or MPMBBS). In this management system, schools have the authority and autonomy to make policies. So, in the implementation of the curriculum, for example, schools are able to develop competences stipulated by the government as well as their own teaching materials, teaching methods, teaching media used and student assessment that depend on the particular characteristics of the school. As Marsh (2004) pointed out, SBM was developed specifically for schools based on their characteristics, needs and resources. He further contended that ‘teachers exercise professional judgements and develop some sense of personal commitment to the curricula they create’.

By the end of 2010, the 2006 curriculum or KTSP should have been implemented at all levels of schooling – primary to secondary – together with the school-based management arrangements within the spirit of a decentralized system. However, it was a complex process due to broader contextual forces such as government policies, local acceptance and involvement of all school stakeholders in the school educational processes (Parker & Raihani, 2011, p. 714). In other words, it was not fully controlled. Many scholars have discussed and argued about the failure of school-based management. Sumintono (2006), for example, observed the implementation of SBM in secondary schools in Lombok and found that SBM through the MONE Decree No. 044/U/2002 was lacking in clarity. He said,

“The Decree was hastily introduced and emphasised structural changes at district and school levels without clarifying its underlying rationales or implementation guidelines.” (p. 75)

He further claimed that the decree did not differ between community involvements at the district from the school level; thus, the Education Board and the school committees’ members were ‘hand-picked and shoulder-tapped’, based on bureaucrat preferences. So, the ‘autonomy’ of the board was still in question. The Education board seemed to give ‘advice’ for the school based management in general while the school committee seemed to contribute to school based curriculum in the form of merely rubberstamping the school documentation such as the school curriculum. The only policies set down by the principals related to school fees and budget. Almost all principals and vice

principals said that the school committees were dealing with school fees such as how much parents can contribute their money to extra classes and money for school facility development, the so called, '*sumbangan*', according to the principal of the Catholic international school. Therefore, the implementation of the SBM seemed to have failed, particularly the involvement of the school committee in academic issues such as curriculum development. A different situation emerged mostly in rural schools but sometimes in urban areas. The vice principal in CS 9 clearly remarked, "Parents do not know what the KTSP curriculum is. They do not care what curriculum is being implemented. They just send children here and do not want to pay at all. They understand '*sekolah gratis*' (free school)". For these schools, all would be budgeted from the school operational fund (*Dana Bantuan Operasional Sekolah*). Schools in the city and some in urban areas, however, asked parents to pay registration and re-registration fees and school fees (sometimes in the form of 'development contribution'), purchase of textbooks, examination and graduation fees. Even with some rural schools, the schools asked a monthly payment for extra classes after school hours that had been agreed upon by parents and schools (CS 11). "The families' backgrounds are from the average medium and low income families, but they support their children's education, such as they agree to pay for extra classes for English though the class happens once in a week to all grade Seven, Eight and Nine students", said the vice principal of CS 11.

### **10.1.2 The Implementation of the KTSP Curriculum**

Fullan (1982) listed 15 factors affecting the implementation of curriculum which covered the characteristics of the change, school district level as well as school level, and external factors to the local system such as role of government and external assistance. Similarly, McLaughlin (1987) contends successful curriculum implementation depending on 'local capacity', 'motivation and commitment', 'internal institutional conditions' and 'balance between pressure and support'. She further outlines how local capacity can be improved by increasing financial support and the training of teachers; however, motivation and commitment are difficult to improve as it depends on the school leader. The internal institutional conditions should be conducive and there should be balance between pressure and support. Pressure is in the form of innovation and legitimacy to embark on a new project while support can be in the form of expert assistance.

Research regarding the curriculum has also been discussed by scholars. Most of their findings emphasize the incongruence between policy and actual practice. In China, for example, Wang (2010) found misinterpretations of English education policies by middle-level administrators. The English language curriculum in Bangladesh according to Ali (2011) was inconsistent between the stated objectives and the actual teaching methods. Atai and Mazlum (2012) concluded that local policy makers (teachers) were not involved in the policy making process in Iran; thus, there was a

gap between planning and practice results. Nunan (2003) found ‘the disjunction between curriculum rhetoric and pedagogical reality’ in China, Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Taiwan and Vietnam.

In Indonesia, the KTSP curriculum introduced in 2006 was based on the competency-based curriculum in 2004. Almost all academics at the national and regional levels remarked that the standard competence and basic competence are all taken from the 2004 curriculum. Because of the decentralized schooling system and school based management introduced at the beginning of 2000, the curriculum was then changed to the 2006 curriculum (KTSP).

In terms of English language, the enacted curriculum stressed developing student competences through the communicative approach, including formulating learning objectives, teaching strategies and students’ assessment. For English, discourse competence was the target of the teaching which aimed at enabling learners to create texts, spoken and written in real communication (Agustien, 2005). Any texts – spoken and written – are characterized by their communicative purpose, text structure, and linguistic features. Such change became a radical one to teachers’ beliefs and practices. In the previous curriculum (the 1994 curriculum), the target of teaching was meaning-based (Madya, 2008) even though some academics argued that the curriculum consisted of a list of topics and grammatical features at a sentence-based level. So, most teachers in the twelve case studies emphasized their teaching was on grammatical and vocabulary items in a sentence-based level, not a text with some sentences. Even some of the teachers (CS 2, CS 5 and CS 10) clearly noted that they preferred to teach using the 1994 curriculum. A principal in CS 2 concluded that the 2004 and 2006 curriculums were very general with unlimited themes to be discussed with students.

Within five years of being implemented in schools particularly in the Yogyakarta province, the school-based curriculum, in particular English, seemed to be complicated in nature because most teachers seemed to think that the curriculum should be concrete and stable. According to Marsh (2009), research on curriculum implementation focusses on two terms, fidelity of implementation and adaptation in implementation. The fidelity perspective assumes that due to the low level of curriculum literacy, the planned curriculum must be highly structured. This perspective ignores teachers’ prior knowledge; as a result, teachers must be thoroughly trained. In contrast, mutual adaptation refers to innovations that occur when the planned curriculum is not highly packaged; so there is still space for users to adjust with their school setting.

The English language curriculum has been clearly outlined in the form of standard competence and basic competence while indicators and teaching methods and assessment depended on the school. In the twelve case studies, curriculum development was done by copying and pasting and it was for

the sake of school documentation. In class, their lesson plans were not really done as planned. They taught according to the examples of documentation shared in the MGMP meeting. So, the implementation of the curriculum in the twelve case studies belongs to neither the fidelity nor adaptation variety. Teachers claimed that they had been teaching in accordance with the government stipulation; however, they were confused about what should be achieved in their teaching as outlined in competency standard and basic competence. Datnow and Castellano (2000) argued that some teachers who had been training followed the curriculum designers' demand; however, some rejected this due to the autonomy issue. To make matters worse, there was lack of in-service training and supervision done by principal and district supervisor in the twelve case studies. As a result, most teachers were unable to create lesson plans which accorded to the characteristic of school and student.

Data from interview and classroom observation indicated that almost all teachers in the 12 case studies focussed more on the reading skill as the macro skill, and grammatical or linguistic competence as modelled by Celce-Murcia. Other competences as suggested – actional, sociocultural and strategic competences to achieve discourse competence (spoken and written) – seemed to be ignored since the target of teaching English was to prepare students for the national examination which assessed reading and writing skills. Students did tasks from the textbook and they were drilled to answer questions for the tests. Some teachers, especially in urban areas, contended that the national examination was 'a pressure' for them. When, for example, students failed in the national examination, teachers were blamed by principals, in turn, principals were blamed by district officials according to a senior English teacher in CS 9. The teachers also argued that the national examination was the target, so spoken texts would not be emphasized. Also, spoken assessment was rarely assessed owing to time constraints as well as the teachers' incapacity.

In other words, the national examination also drove teachers to emphasize cognitive aspects such as grammatical features and vocabulary items. The government stipulated that the target of English language was communicative competence – creating texts – this became a 'blur'. As Celce-Murcia (1991) noted, grammar (i.e., the teaching of morphological inflections, function words, and syntactic word order) was a central concern in English language teaching in foreign language contexts in 1967; even Rutherford (1987) in Celce-Murcia (1991) outlined that the teaching of grammar was synonymous with foreign language teaching for 2,500 years. Since communication is the goal of second or foreign language teaching as coined by Hymes (1972) and Halliday (1973) as the target of teaching, grammatical competence is one of the components that interacts with meaning, social function, or discourse rather than standing alone as an autonomous system to be learned for its own sake.



Teachers' commitment to be much better in teaching seemed to be difficult to realize. Marsh (2009) outlined that some teachers might embrace the curriculum with enthusiasm (consonant users) while some may be unwilling to conform (dissonant users). In these twelve case studies, almost all teachers seemed to be dissonant users by simply doing a 'copy-paste' of curriculum, syllabus and lesson plan. In other words, their documentation was similar to the exemplar devised by the government through districts (MGMP meetings). These dissonant users admitted that their 'own' syllabus, particularly lesson plans, were copy pasted from MGMP though few teachers also noted that they did 'a little change' on syllabus and lesson plans; Many teachers, however, only created lesson plans when the district supervisors observed them for the purpose of documentation. Their priority consideration was the topic discussed or grammar to be taught rather than what basic competence the students needed to achieve. Teachers might be satisfied with their existing curriculum. This might be due to lack of training for school staff that contributed to the insignificant change of policy implementation on the ground.

Academics also outlined how the government seemed to over-simplify problems. "They do this or that because they have money to spend, it's not we need to develop the curriculum", the national curriculum designer noted. She said,

"The change from KBK to KTSP was not based on evaluation. No. It was just another move by the government for whatever reason and I don't understand what the reason was because actually it is still competence-based. So, there is no fundamental change actually. It's just the change of name."

A previous head of the provincial education office remarked that the curriculum centre (*Pusat Kurikulum*) thought of simplicity in terms of curriculum development, such as having a one or two day in-service training to understand the curriculum without further assistance from the government. To make it worse, the lack of any systematic evaluation of the implementation of the English language component of the KTSP curriculum and their predecessors as well as its underlying administrative philosophies happened very rarely. As a result, local authorities and individual schools seemed to make ill-informed decisions.

## **10.2 The Performance of Principals as Leaders**

Regarding principals, as outlined in Chapter 5, the school principal's job is to improve academic achievement (Odhiambo & Hii, 2012) and the performance of school staff, particularly teachers. In terms of curriculum development in the twelve case studies, the principal's leadership seemed to be shared with the first vice principal and some senior teachers. They delegated the changing of the curriculum to the vice principal (*wakasek*) and some senior teachers. The principals organized the meeting and chose teachers involved in this annual meeting. The meeting finished, the principals signed the documentation and forwarded it to the district supervisor to be corrected and later it was



signed by the head of the district education office. In practice, ‘shared leadership’ made principals have inadequate understanding regarding the curriculum revision in detail. Principals generally lacked curriculum competence. This might be due to their lack of practice in ‘revising’ the curriculum. The curriculum documentation stated that principals are ‘responsible’ for the revising as well as the implementation of the curriculum but the responsibilities seemed to be unclear, and certainly unfulfilled.

Generally, the curriculum revision occurred annually and it was only about the teaching hours of the core subjects, local content and self development subjects. The passing minimum grade was decided by the principal together with teachers. So, the curriculum revision which was mostly done annually was delegated to vice principals and senior teachers.

Such practices led principals to think that the 2006 KTSP curriculum was good as the ‘authority’ depends on the schools themselves. After being signed off by the head of DEO, the implementation of the curriculum then depends on the teachers. So evaluation and assessment were never conducted by the principals. When there was an assessment, it was for teachers who was involved in the teacher certification program and it was done in numeric form rather than feedback based on quality assurance principles. Class observation had never been conducted; thus, teachers felt doubtful whether how they taught was in accordance with the curriculum. Most teachers in the 12 CS noted, “We do not know whether our lesson plan is good or not because the principal didn’t analyse it. He just simply signed off”. It indicated that the principals put little attention on the curriculum implementation or it might have been because of the principals’ incompetence in English language teaching.

### **10.3 The Teachers’ Capacity**

Teachers have continued to teach according to old practices. Lamb (1995) as cited in Sato (2002) found that ideas from in-service programs were mediated by ‘teachers’ existing belief’. Pre-service teachers according to Johnson (1994 cited in Sato, 2002) could not alter their beliefs without sufficient instructional practices. Musthafa (2001) outlined some challenges that teachers had in developing students’ communicative competence, namely (1) teachers’ confidence, (2) time constraints and (3) the type and focus of the examination, upon which students’ success in learning English was judged.

The target of teaching English outlined in the curriculum was discourse competence at the core with four supported components – actional, sociolinguistic, linguistic and strategic competences. The macro skills outlined by Brown (2004) to achieve communicative competence seemed to be

difficult in realization. Teachers seemed to teach language skills separately though in human interaction, the language skills are normally integrated. As Mician (2013, p. 26) said, “Language reductionism extends to the common practice of dividing language use into separate skills. In some cases, skills are broken down further”. This might happen due to the cognitive theories that dissociate meaning-making from communicative events or people’s practices (Mician, 2013, p. 27). The survey in this study showed 44 per cent of teachers noted listening was the most important skill followed by reading (32 %), and speaking (24 %) with little agreement on writing skills. Interview and class observation showed reading was the most important one due to the national examination. This incongruence provides strong evidence that the teachers had inadequate and confused understanding regarding what skills to teach.

Some teachers complained about students’ laziness in which the tasks in the textbooks had been answered by previous students and they did copy paste answer from the textbooks. Some teachers also found difficult finding various texts for teaching materials or the tests. In CS 5, for example, the teacher clearly said that they needed more texts from various textbooks. When the researcher asked about teachers’ creativity in creating paragraphs, they said that they lacked confidence with their English. This indicated that the teachers’ language proficiency, in particular writing skill, was insufficient.

Some teachers in the twelve case studies believed that, since the implementation of the 2004 curriculum, grammar was not ‘focused’. “We heard that grammar is not taught in the competency based curriculum though we sometimes still teach grammar such as once or twice in one semester” (teachers in rural areas, CS 5 and CS 9). Survey data showed that 54 per cent teachers stated vocabulary was important followed by grammar (38 %), pronunciation (8 %) with no agreement on structure of text. Nazari (2007) remarked that communicative competence in an Iranian high school was actually revisiting Chomsky’s linguistic competence. He said,

“Some high school EFL teachers have an indistinct view about the concept of communicative competence and do not seem to distinguish between the broader and narrower meanings of the concept.”

“Teachers’ definitions of communicative competence is a combination of broader and narrower views, in practice their in-class activities tend towards the narrower concept. One of the reasons for this tendency could be certain institutional constraints, thereby causing the teachers to feel more comfortable with implementing a narrower view. Another reason, I suggested, could be the teachers’ lack of distinction between the two concepts of communicative competence.” (Nazari, 2007, p. 210)

Students seemed to be ‘drilled’ by the teachers on linguistic competence to be able to do the national examination and these Indonesian teachers seemed to have a narrower view of communicative competence. Some teachers, based on class observation, showed that they taught text structure. This inconsistency happened due to lack of knowledge of teachers. The separation of

form and function in the communicative language teaching performed by teachers occurred in almost all twelve case studies though a few of them were confused whether they taught grammatical features or not to students. Teachers seemed to teach grammatical features at the sentence level rather than the level of text. With communicative competence as the aim as stated in the Government Regulation, the target was difficult to achieve. As Mickan (2013, p. 128) asserted,

Language as texts is functional in the context of social practices. It is no longer sufficient for programmes with communicative goals to teach and test items of grammar in isolation from texts.

In light of the reading skill as one of teachers' emphases in teaching, some academics also noted that teachers taught knowledge not to comprehend the texts in the reading skill class and ignored text comprehension. The national education agency pointed out, "Many teachers teach by explaining the concepts of text types so that they focus more on the knowledge about the text types". This might be because of teachers' mindset that the national examination was asking about the structure of texts and linguistic features.

The school educational system was based around the eight national standards stipulated by the government. For English, the target in the policy is communicative competence; in fact, in the implementation, it was to teach the knowledge or content of English language emphasizing teaching vocabulary items and grammar in 'sentence-level' for the purpose of the national examination. Students were 'drilled' by test items conducted after school hours. The standard competence and basic competence that should be achieved was merely school documentation that was 'made' by teachers and signed off by the principals. Madya (2008, p. 27) noted regarding the curriculum,

"At the policy level the government determines the national standards formulated in government regulation that will be the basis for the ministerial regulations to guide the operational level decision making. At the operational level, the school shall develop its own curriculum based on the above said legal instruments. To ensure the consistency, the government has also provided a guide book and conducted trainings at the national level. Additionally, the curriculum development in each province and district/city is supported and facilitated by a team of curriculum socialization and development training and, if desired, by technical assistance provided by the Ministry."

Such a situation might happen due to the 'culture of learning' of a particular country (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996). In China, Cortazzi and Jin (1996) found that the emphasis in teaching and learning is on memory, imitation, and repetitive practice. The same situation has occurred also in Indonesia that emphasized knowledge of the subject matter. White (1997) concluded that the curriculum for social studies related courses in Indonesia is really more of scope and sequence that focus on content. He further noted that the teaching method for social studies is through lecturing and minimal discussion for the purpose of acquiring knowledge because the goal of teaching and learning was the test.

The socialization and in-service training conducted by MGMP was hardly attended by most teachers. The evidence indicated that teachers lacked motivation to develop their own capacity in English proficiency and teaching methodology. Their interest to participate in in-service training was lacking. They blamed teacher workload and distance between the school and location of the in-service training, particularly teachers in rural areas. Teachers found themselves busy in achieving their minimum teaching hours (24 hours in class). Principals or vice principals sometimes scheduled teachers on the day of the MGMP training which happened to be the monthly meeting. In brief, supervision that should have been performed by both district supervisor and principals as well as positive encouragement to develop teachers' capacities were lacking.

#### **10.4 Tension of the National Examination**

Almost all English teachers in the twelve case studies seemed to have various understandings regarding the teaching of English but it was not grounded in communicative competence. In practice, they taught English for the national examination. Hence, the principals and the 'staff of District Education Office' put 'pressure' on teachers. Due to teaching to the test, almost all teachers in interview and classroom observation data put forward reading as the most important macro skill with an emphasis on discussing vocabulary items as well as grammatical features. Musthafa (2001) contended that the national examination focussed on knowledge of syntax and grammar although many teachers and curriculum developers realized that this practice was counterproductive to the attempt to develop communicative competence. Policy makers wrongly believed that communicative instruments were difficult and expensive to develop. To make it worse, English was not used in day-to-day social communication. Teaching to the test or the exam-driven learning culture (Miller, 2000) was mostly conducted by schools across countries in Asia in which English is a foreign language, not just in Indonesia.

Also, Mickan (2013) noted that the problem in language education was the contradiction between policy and students' assessment in which multiple choice tests focusing on grammatical accuracy in sentences and knowledge of words in isolation from text. So, there was a discrepancy between goals and procedures. Coleman et al. (2004) further noted that as students get closer to the national examination, lessons become almost exclusively a matter of enhancing 'test-literacy'. So, the notion of decentralized education is in the level of policy (principles of national unity). Also, the implementation is still top-down, without the principles of regional autonomy and school-based management. In other words, it is still a 'centralist approach'; there was little space for teachers to develop their syllabus. The curriculum, syllabus and lesson plans are a 'copy paste' documentation from the guidelines given by the government or devised by the local panel of subject teachers. In

other words, there has been also a lack of appreciation of the onground realities of teaching the ELT elements.

Both teachers and students focused their attention on how to gain good scores in the national examination. Based on limited observation, students tended to be passive, listened to teachers' explanation without questions or interruption from students. When the teachers had finished explaining the teaching material, the teachers then asked students to do some tasks from textbooks together with some tasks from a student workbook (LKS). When they had finished, the teachers checked the answers together with students and the next class meeting would be about another text type with different topics from the textbooks.

In spite of a great effort to implement the school-based curriculum, there has been a mismatch between the competences laid out by the government and the insistence of MONE to maintain the national examination for secondary schools. Schools had already been autonomous to develop and carry out their basic competencies, however, the tension of the national examination drives teachers to focus on how to gain good results on the national examination. As a result, teachers teach to the test and drill them for several months in Year Nine. Schools in rural areas suffer from the national competition that sometimes drive them to do 'bad practices' for their students.

Due to the driving force of the national examination through the four core subjects, the result of the English subject was not significantly different to mathematics in 2011. The overall average for English was 5.91 while mathematics was 6.18. This indicated that the English subject was the most difficult subject to learn. The students agreed that they needed English for their further study and better life in the future but because language was seen as 'knowledge', teachers seemed to teach about the knowledge of English rather than how to put English as language in communication. In the classroom teachers were in-doubt about the aim of teaching English to students. When asked for the aim of English teaching, almost all answered in terms of the national examination that indicated testing about the knowledge of English.

As noted, the result of the national examination takes 60 per cent while 40 per cent is for the school examination. Such calculation created an opportunity for teachers to mark up their school examination. A principal in a rural area with many decades of experience clearly said that school staff particularly principal and core subject teachers 'discussed' the best scores for their students. The reason to do that was to 'help' students to continue further study and it became also 'promotion' for parents to send their children to their school.

To obtain good grades, school and parents had ‘extra preparation’ for the exam. For students in the city, parents sent them to *Bimbel* (*bimbingan belajar* – learning guidance) classes; thus, the number of significant *bimbel* was expanding and flourishing in Yogyakarta. This indicated that parents want their students to be successful in the national examination for the core subjects. Other subjects seemed to be taken for granted. This line of argument was pursued by the vice principal of an international school, saying that the parents’ preoccupation now was really how well their children do in the tests. So, the students were drilled to do test items in ‘smart and quick’ ways. Parents’ tendency of sending their children to Bimbel was significant. “There was a ‘discourse’ from parents that students should be taught only in the four core subjects (for the national examination); we don’t need other subjects to be taught at schools”, the vice principal said. In other words, families start to think of schools becoming ‘*bimbingan belajar*’ or drilling students with the material for the national examination. Lamb and Coleman (2008) pinpointed that over 50 per cent of students had taken private courses in English during the time they were in the junior high school. Also this indicated that students lacked confidence to do the national examination.

### **10.5 Insufficient Appreciation of ELT in the Global Economy**

The sociolinguistic context also influenced the success of learning English. As Kachru (1996) defined it, Indonesia is in the expanding circle that implied the teaching of English as a foreign language. The Government Regulation No. 19/2005 stated that the teaching of English is to achieve the required communicative competence outlined in the content standard (*standar isi*). Due to ‘the expanding’ circle in which English was rarely used in daily communication, the implication was that both teachers and students thought that English was the subject that needed to be memorized. This implied the ‘style’ of teaching English focusing on the structure, the grammatical features and the vocabulary items at the ‘sentence’ level.

Regarding students’ motivation to learn English, their answer varied between districts. Their reasons were both to gain good scores in the national examination as well as to continue on further study. Students’ determination to participate in English classes was quite high. Lamb and Coleman (2008, p. 197) found that both teachers and students in one of the top junior high schools in the city of Pekanbaru believed that real progress in English was only possible by studying privately outside the school. They further said,

“Admittedly, these institutions differ enormously in the quality of provision – in some cases the instructor is a teacher from the pupils’ own school – but their potential importance can be gauged from the fact that motivated and achieving learners tended to refer first to their private tutoring in English when asked about their current study of the language, and only second to their school lessons.”

Students' motivation in the city seemed to be quite high and this might relate to their motive to have a better life and parents supported them by sending them to English private classes (*kursus Bahasa Inggris*) or *Bimbingan Belajar (BimBel)* and also providing them with computer and internet access at home. Nevertheless, students in urban and rural areas were mostly from low socioeconomic backgrounds, and a different picture emerged to those in the city in terms of academic achievement in the national examination. For the English subject, the result was very significantly different. Students in the city gained 8.46 in average, urban 5.66, and rural 5.13. This indicated that socioeconomic background of family also influenced students' achievement. When asked whether parents supported them to learn English, the student answers were 'so-so'. Also, whether parents supported their learning English at home by providing computer, the answers were still 'so-so'. This indicated that students in the city had more support from their parents rather than those in the urban and rural areas. Such support would be their motivation in learning English that could be observed at least by the results of the national examination.

Teachers also triggered students' motivation to be much better in academic performance. In the focus group discussion, students complained about their English teachers who liked to punish them in class. In the teaching and learning process, most teachers could not be good models of English language due to their low English language proficiency. On the other hand, teachers argued that when they spoke in English, students became demotivated because they did not understand.

Regarding motivation of students in learning, students in the city had more support from parents to have English classes after schools and also students in urban schools. In rural areas, due to living in a quiet village far from the noise of the city, education was something not really important except as a compulsory government requirement. They just simply thought they would become farmers or housemaids like their parents. "They come to school, but they just talk among their friends and pay no attention in class and sometimes they prefer to stay at a small shop located in front of the school", said the principal and the teachers (CS 12).

Learning English, for example, was for the sake of the national examination and of communication to native speakers if necessary. Based on the survey data, the students (60 %) said they liked to learn English at school, but they disagreed when asked whether English was the most favourite subject and learnt at home after school. In addition, they never learnt English with computers whether at school or at home. They learnt when the teacher gave them homework in the textbook (CS 6). Concerning the most favourite subject, they firstly liked Bahasa Indonesia, mathematics, science and English. Based on the results of the 2011 national examination, Bahasa Indonesia was on average 8.24, science 5.22, mathematics 4.41 and English 4.59.



Insufficient appreciation, especially in rural schools, was found of the global cultural and economic imperative for Indonesian students to be proficient in English in a trilingual context. This indicated lack of motivation for both teachers and students to communicate in English to others as the impact of globalization deepened. Either teachers or students paid attention to English language as one of the core subjects in the national examination, not English as needed for globalization.

## **10.6 Madrasahs**

Teachers in madrasahs seemed to have a less adequate capacity in teaching than those managed under MONE. Most English language teachers were not bachelor graduates with English language qualifications and were part time teachers from other schools in the districts, rushing from school to school to achieve their 24 hours. One senior teacher (CS 6) said that he taught permanently in a school managed under MONE which was far from his other school. Due to the lack of teaching hours, he fulfilled the 24 hours in this government madrasah managed under MORA. His experience teaching in the madrasah was longer than in his government school. Regarding in-service training, all noted that they rarely participated. Some said they were not interested in developing their capacity in teaching. Two senior teachers (CS 6 and CS 8) noted that their principal never observed their teaching nor other English teachers. A senior teacher in CS 6 remarked that teaching in the school was very convenient for him. He clearly stated in English, “no preparation, no matter, no problem”. He added that the students were passive in learning English, and the principal gave little attention nor did his colleagues, so he concluded he did not need to prepare anything for his teaching. A similar situation happened also in CS 8. The senior teacher with 36 years experience teaching English never wrote his syllabus or lesson plans. He said, “I don’t have the syllabus with me, and I have never used lesson planning in my teaching. I have a printed file of lesson plans that I got from the district panel of subject teachers; and I keep it at home. You can take the folio if you want”. The statement inferred that this senior teacher did not pay attention to the importance of planning to achieve the standard competence stipulated by the government. Such a situation indicated that planning was not important in teaching. In addition, the principals seemed to ignore the supervision of teachers. Also, observation data showed that these senior ‘experienced’ teachers were confused with what and how to teach English language. They had low capacity in English language teaching particularly communicative competence. One of them was very proud saying that he was already certified and another was proud of his decades’ experience in teaching English.

Regarding the curriculum content, the MONE Regulation No. 22/2006 stipulated that the curriculum for junior high school was 32 teaching hours per week including the 10 prescribed subjects together with local content and self development classes. The core subjects at least had 4



teaching hours per week. Due to the KTSP curriculum, all schools increased the number of teaching hours ranging 40-47. These additional teaching hours were devoted to the four core subjects. The highest average number of teaching hours was given to mathematics (5.83 hours), natural science (5.5) and Bahasa Indonesia (4.92) (see Table 4.4). Islamic private schools (Muhammadiyah) had 45-47 teaching hours with the dominance of 7 hours for the religion subject. The senior teacher in CS 2 clearly said that the students started learning at 6.45 a.m by reciting the Qur'an followed by other subjects. School finished at 3 p.m, then students had extracurricular learning activities for two hours, such as scouting, reciting the Qur'an, traditional music and dancing, marching (*Tonti*), and *Taman Pendidikan Al-Quran*. For the Year 9 students, they had extra classes in the four subjects. She further said,

“The students sometimes went home after 5 p.m. So, there is no time for them to learn at home, I guess. They study when teachers gave them homework. They are tired especially Year 9 students who have extra classes to prepare them for the national examination.”

Parker and Raihani (2011) have asserted the curriculum in madrasahs has become more secular with 30 per cent religious subjects and 70 per cent secular subjects. This implied that the madrasah school day is more overloaded than that of general schools. This drives both teachers and students to suffer from a lack of concentration. The principal in CS 8 (an Islamic boarding school) said,

“Our curriculum is the combination of MORA, MONE and the mission from *Pondok*. We have implemented the KTSP curriculum since 2011. It started first by ‘*sosialisasi*’ in 2009 and training from public universities (UNY and UIN) over two years...I think students here have an overloaded curriculum. We understand that students need to pass the national examination and to achieve the *Pondok*’s mission, so the aims are two, not like in secular schools that need to pass the national examination. We still need to follow the mission from its foundation. Due to so many aims, then students ‘fail’ in neither the national examination nor raising a faithful and knowledgeable generation who strive to spread the message sincerely.”

A similar study of Parker and Raihani (2011) found that madrasahs were more overloaded than general schools, so pedagogical problems such as lack of concentration for both teachers and students occurred. In fact, the principal further noted that if this boarding school did not participate in the national examination, there would not be students enrolled in this school. His reason was because people in Yogyakarta were ‘Javanese aristocrats’ who gave first priority to the state than to religion.

Raihani and Parker (2011) also found that the level of parental and community participation in madrasah governance was low. Parents thought they had no place in school governance or in teaching and learning. The authority at the school level was in the hands of principals, teachers and school founders (*yayasan*). Observers such as Bandur (2011), Bjork (2009), Sumintono (2006), and Raihani and Parker (2011) agree that the involvement of parents and community remains limited to school funding. The failure of SBM according to them was: (1) stakeholders had a lack of

knowledge regarding SBM, particularly the power and authority of school management is supposed to be in the hands of school committee, (2) stakeholders are not yet competent to play effective roles in SBM, and (3) there is a cultural resistance to the reform. These factors together with the socioeconomic situation and educational context seemed that SBM in Indonesia, according to Raihani and Parker (2011), is still ‘finding its feet’. Such a situation happened also in the centralized system through Education Act No. 4/1950 stating that the participation of community through the Associations of Parents and Teachers (*Persatuan Orang Tua Murid dan Guru*) was limited only to non-instructional matters such as school buildings and school finances while authority in terms of teaching and learning was in the hands of school staff. So, this study suggests the empowerment of community through boards of education and school committees in madrasahs was lacking.

### **10.7 Schools in Rural Areas**

Of the twelve CS, the understanding of the 2006 curriculum varied. The class size, for example, was normally 32 students in a class in rural and urban areas though in some schools in the city such as international it was over 35 students. Schools in rural areas, in particular private ones, suffered from the quantity of students as well as the teachers. CS 10 had four permanent teachers including the principal and the number of students in a class was less than 20. CS 12 had a very limited number of permanent teachers.

Regarding the national examination results, students in rural schools usually gained scores significantly under the government stipulation. Almost all rural schools, particularly the private ones, had low scores in the four subjects as compared to urban schools. Some teachers then did malpractice at school to ‘modify’ the students’ test score to provide them with enhanced educational opportunities. The principal of CS 12, for example, clearly said that the teachers discussed with the principals to mark up students’ scores in *Ujian Sekolah* (school examination) to ‘help’ students who got lower achievement scores in the national examination. “It’s a common thing to do such”, he said. Furthermore, the principal and English teacher remarked, “English and mathematics are difficult subjects that most students failed; it’s under 4.5. These students, as a result, fail and need to take the second chance in the following year. Otherwise, they could not continue their further study (senior high school)”. This indicated that both principals and teachers made ‘efforts’ to raise students’ achievement in the national examination that became a positive promotion to invite students enrolling in the schools.

## 10.8 School Facilities and their Usage

In general, of the twelve case studies, most schools provided various laboratories such as computer, multimedia, language and science except for two schools in rural areas (CS 7 and CS 12). Two large schools in the city (CS 3 and CS 4) even put more technology (LCD, a set of computers including active speakers, a printer and a CCTV) for learning, particularly in the ‘international’ class. English language teaching was always in classrooms with such equipment.

In urban areas, almost all schools had a computer laboratory or multimedia library (CS 2, CS 6, CS 8, and CS 11), and CS 1 and CS 2 with language laboratories. Of the twelve case studies, the computer laboratory seemed to be for the information technology subject. The English teachers or other language teachers never taught the ‘language’ subject in this laboratory. It indicated that the teachers did not make use of such laboratory due to their lacking competence and skill in computers. Some teachers even acknowledged that they needed extra time to prepare and due to ‘lots of teaching materials’ and the number of students, they preferred to have the ‘*klasikal*’ approach. Some teachers clearly said that using a computer for teaching English was just wasting time. This indicated that the teachers were ‘lazy’ to create such an interesting class with the computers or this might be their inadequate capacity in making use of information technology equipment. In some schools in urban and rural areas, WiFi access can be easily used at schools or at least in their computer laboratory; however, some teachers complained about the slow access as the reasons why they did not utilize internet access at school.

With the rapid advancement of information technology across districts, academicians concluded that the access of information was much easier. A staff member in MONE noted that the government had already facilitated e-learning in 2007. He said, “The schools were given 14,000 computers for e-learning and e-management in their multimedia classroom”. Teachers can access various information sources to improve teachers’ capacity or for teaching material. The problem, however, was teachers’ capacity in making use of this technology advancement; in other words, the problem was teachers’ incapability with modern laboratory equipment. They seemed to rely on the textbooks; they were not creative in developing their teaching material. Teachers did not make efforts how to create interesting learning in class. Thus, they asked publishers to have more grammatical exercises for students to fulfil.

## 10.9 Teacher Training Institutions

As already discussed, teachers’ capacity seemed to be a problem in the implementation of the curriculum. Pre-service training institutions also contributed to the incapacity of teachers. One of the teacher training institutions, for example, focused on content rather than students’ competency.

In other words, the curriculum seemed to be a content-based curriculum, not a competency based curriculum that has been stipulated by the government in 2004. Table 6.3 and Table 6.4 showed that the institution focused on ‘theory’ (88.51 %) rather than ‘practice’ (11.49 %). This figure indicates that students seemed to be taught about English knowledge, and not about practical methods nor critical thinking. Even though students had passed an English language proficiency test as well as their micro teaching and having had teaching experience in schools, this seems not to have guaranteed their capacity to teach on the ground. Another issue identified was about the standards of higher education institutions and a proper quality assurance process.

### **10.10 Recommendations**

It has been a decade since Indonesian adopted a decentralization system; however, the national curriculum was still a top-down approach because of the failures in implementation, such as the lack of capacity at local level to assume responsibilities from the central government, the deeply embedded ‘culture’ of conditioning individuals to follow orders from the top, implementing rather than initiating or designing policy, and the lack in skill of administrators to manage their funds to accommodate their educational needs. The funds are mostly spent on operational school as well as building and improving physical facilities rather improving teacher competence and professionalism. These limitations have impacted on the governance system, after a long period of a centralization system. It highlights yet again the difficulties of changing the national schooling system.

Due to the changing system of governance from a centralized to a decentralized system, the central government seemed to give unclear responsibilities and insufficient training to local authorities. In terms of education, the Indonesian national education system needs to be redesigned in the context of decentralization. Even though the vision and mission of the KTSP curriculum has already been set by the government, at the district level and in individual schools role confusion has been the result. MONE should have a clear picture of how local actors react to newly created opportunities to shape policy and practice in schools. Local authorities need to have their own policies in order to ensure the ‘matching’ between the top down policy and the actual conditions of schools in the districts. So, districts and schools need to have their own autonomy in managing their educational responsibilities according to their characteristics. As Bjork (2006) contended, the attention goes to local agencies and actors while upper level officials need to gain a deeper understanding of the conditions in which their policies are enacted.

Empowering BOE and school committees in the decentralized system seemed to contribute insignificantly. Boards of Education become ‘school advisors’; in terms of curriculum, the board

had nothing to do as schools themselves created their own curriculum based on school characteristics. The school committee consisting of parental representatives were invited to rubberstamp the school curriculum and to decide parental contributions for extra class fees for Year Nine.

District supervisors who were limited in number and with their ‘busy agenda’ seemed to give minimal supervision to both principals and teachers. Teacher professionalism is mostly conducted by the districts in the form of in-service training of subject teachers panel which is supposed to be conducted biweekly or monthly. However, teachers’ participation is also lacking due to their busy teaching time.

The decentralized system brings about unclear responsibilities and ambiguity for schools, in particular regarding school-based management and the KTSP curriculum. In the implementation of the curriculum, the teachers found it difficult to understand what and how to implement such a curriculum. In other words, almost all teachers had inadequate capacity in their pedagogical and professional competence. Additionally, the principals had instructional leadership responsibilities but in fact the duties regarding curriculum would be delegated to the first vice principals and senior teachers to ‘revise’ the curriculum annually. The curriculum change had already occurred but it was not based on solid and thorough evaluation research. Systematic evaluation of the KTSP and previous curriculums has been lacking. Even the current curriculum (2013 curriculum) according to local, regional and national newspapers was not based on any nation-wide evaluation of the KTSP curriculum.

The inadequate capacity of teachers might be due to lack of in-service training done by the districts as the responsibility for teachers was in the hands of the districts. Also, the District Education Office gives the responsibility regarding the implementation of the curriculum to supervisors who were limited in numbers and often with inappropriate educational qualifications. The assessments conducted by supervisors were for the purpose of teacher certification. Supervision happened very rarely, perhaps once in a semester or once in a year. Thus, teachers seemed not to be supervised neither by district supervisors nor principals. Teachers eventually depended much on the textbooks rather than their own creativity. Teachers’ lack of knowledge on English language teaching might be due to the availability of information technology and internet access to find learning resources. It was even worse when teachers did not understand how to find learning resources. Another challenge for English teachers also was how to use information technology in class.

These findings imply the need for an overhaul of the Indonesian schooling system to be urgently addressed and the government should give a clear vision to policy implementers. The results of this

research indicated insufficient capacity of principals and teachers school staff, in particular principals and teachers. They need to be well-trained because they contribute to students' motivation and achievement. Also, they had some challenges because of the government policy, for example, teachers' commitment to improve their professionalism. Further research regarding teachers' commitment is to be welcome.

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